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ABSTRACT

Selected papers from the 1982 Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages are presented. The theme of the conference was the establishment of communication and cooperation between foreign language and English as second language (ESL) teachers. The papers focus on methods for developing language skills and curriculum frameworks. Specific topics include: (1) activities for developing speech skills in the foreign or second language classroom, (2) designing a college level advanced conversation course, (3) activities for individualized instruction in secondary ESL and foreign language classes, (4) an approach for deciding which errors to correct, (5) the effects of group size on language learning, (6) information transfer techniques for the teaching of reading and listening comprehension, (7) college level instruction of Spanish for special purposes, (8) a proposed interdisciplinary curriculum that allows language classes to employ the arts, (9) a procedure for improving coordination between secondary and postsecondary levels of second language instruction, and (10) ways of concluding a language course. (RW)

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ESL and the Foreign Language Teacher

ED222062

Selected Papers from the 1982 Central States Conference

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Preface

The 1960s and 1970s were characterized in language teaching by the development and strengthening of professional associations, and by the establishment of realistic goals which each of the more than one hundred national, regional, state, and local organizations—multilingual and unilingual—strives to accomplish. The 1980s needs to be the decade in which language-specific independence is subordinated to our *professional unity*. The theme of the 1982 Central States Conference, "Foreign Languages and English as a Second Language: From Monologue to Dialogue," is a significant step along that path.

The 1982 Conference, held at the Galt House in Louisville, Kentucky, brought together teachers and scholars from the "Traditional Clientele" for Central States—i.e., French, German, Latin, Spanish, etc.—as well as from the field of English as a Second Language, the fastest growing language-teaching area in North America. Participants shared ideas and experiences and learned from one another. It is clear from the papers in this volume that the ties that bind us as language teachers are—and should be—much stronger than those which divide us. In a world of interdependence, teachers of languages, literatures, and cultures *can* make a difference in the quality of life on this planet, but only through a cooperative effort. In a small way, the 1982 Central States Conference has sought to further that goal.

Howard B. Altman and
Robert C. Lafayette
1982 Program Co-Chairpersons

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Introduction

Alan Garfinkel
Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana

The theme of the 1982 Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, "FL and ESL: From Monologue to Dialogue," recognizes a chain of events and a need that have acquired unprecedented significance over the last twenty to twenty-five years. The chain of events began with a marked increase in numbers of students of limited English proficiency at all levels. It has continued with numerous proposed responses and, at best, varying levels of success. In most schools, the foreign language teacher has been the person called upon to make these responses, some of which have been with the benefit of specific training in the teaching of English as a Second Language and some of which have been without. The need is the one to which the conference theme refers—the need for dialogue between foreign language teachers who have students of limited English proficiency and specifically trained ESL teachers at all levels. It is in the hope of beginning to fulfill that need that the 1982 Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages has called foreign language teachers together to discuss the problems of teaching students of limited English proficiency with the assistance of ESL specialists. This is the composition of the group that assembled in Louisville on 22–24 April 1982. The papers presented in this volume are a sampling of the discussions that took place there. For the most part, they represent thoughts of foreign language teachers that are intended to be useful in a continued dialogue on the teaching of ESL—one from which both foreign language and ESL teachers may one day benefit.

Limitations of space make it impossible to print all the papers presented at the Conference. Those presented here are the editors' selections of written representations of the conference proceedings that lend themselves to the limits imposed by the Conference's annual publication schedule. Not surprisingly, many of the papers are concerned

with development of the basic language skills in general and the speaking skill in particular. These skills have been primary concerns of FL and ESL teachers alike. Other papers focus on the curricular framework that serves as an organizer for those skills.

Snyder and DeSelms begin the volume with practical suggestions on teaching the speaking skills. They propose ways to stimulate target language speech with formats, games, and classroom dynamics.

König and Vernon discuss the speaking skill in terms of a college course. Those who have difficulty in fitting stimuli for communicative ability into that context will find their work useful.

Strauber, an experienced secondary teacher, suggests practical procedures for individualizing instruction by making it possible to occupy small groups in a variety of exercises and games.

Magnan proposes that correction be reserved for those errors that are known to cause negative reaction among native speakers. She describes a procedure for making that determination in French and points out the value of overlooking errors that do not impede communication.

Nerenz and Knop measured the effects of various classroom groupings on student learning. They make it clear that these groupings have a marked effect.

Latorre and Garfinkel present the details of information transfer techniques in the teaching of reading and listening. These techniques are widely known in the ESL field but are much newer to FL textbooks.

Voght presents what one might call "Spanish for Special Purposes." The English for Special Purposes (ESP) movement is well known in the ESL field. Much has been written about it. Much less has been written about applications of the special-purposes curriculum to foreign languages.

Wilkins and Boswau propose curriculum for interdisciplinary courses that enable language classes to employ the arts: literary, plastic, and musical. Their rationale and information may also be used in ESL classes where work on prevocational skills, etc., is not appropriate.

Muyskens and Berger recognize that a problem common to teachers of FL and ESL alike is articulation between secondary and post-secondary levels of instruction. They describe a four-step procedure for improving articulation.

Strasheim points out that many teachers have voiced concern with the ways an academic year of instruction begins, but that the end of the year gets insufficient attention. She describes ways to end the year "positively, painlessly, and pleasurably."

These papers are presented as contributions toward the process of developing a stronger and more frequently utilized dialogue between the ESL and FL fields. While they represent no more than a beginning of that dialogue, it is hoped that other groups will carry the process further so that a future Central States Conference may one day make additional contributions to a highly developed FL/ESL exchange of ideas.

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1 Creative Student-Centered Communication:

Activities for Foreign- and Second-Language Classrooms

Barbara Snyder
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Ohio Dominican College, Columbus, Ohio

Most language teachers today acknowledge the need to help their students reach the goal of communicative competence in the target language. A problem, however, is that many teachers trained to teach for audio-lingual linguistic goals are unaware of the potential and utility of communicative techniques in promoting language learning.

> For many of us who were taught a foreign language through a structure-oriented approach, the ability to focus on meaning during performance may not have developed at all during classroom learning. Our formal course may have left us with a large corpus of "pre-communicative" knowledge and skills.[1]

This article, therefore, offers not only some rationale for teaching for communication, but also some classroom management procedures that encourage communication in the target language and some communicative activities that have been successfully implemented in the classroom.

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That language learning involves more than drill is a well-known aphorism since Savignon's 1972 study,[2] but is one that is well worth repeating. Numerous educators have pointed out that it is not enough to practice the language; it is also necessary to apply it.

> Communicative competence theorists . . . made the obvious, but previously unobserved, point that students learn to communicate only when they

> engage in communicative activities. As an additional step beyond straight memorization of dialogues and drills, students must have daily activities that encourage and allow them to engage in realistic conversation.[3]

Paulston and Selekman[4] distinguish four phases of language instruction: mechanical drills, meaningful drills, communicative drills, and interaction activities. They recommend that language patterns being learned should be taken through all four phases and that, "communicative drills should be present in the classroom within the first week of a beginning course and communication activities not later than the third week."[5] As soon as possible, the teacher must lead the students into situations in which they can interact using the language they are learning in meaningful ways.

Rivers[6] distinguishes between skill-getting activities (practice) and skill-using activities (application), but includes pseudocommunication activities as part of skill-getting, and interaction as part of skill-using from the beginning of language study. Gaudiani[7] says that tedious repetition, tension-producing pattern drills, and methodical inevitability in oral exercises dampen enthusiasm, spread boredom, and provide an easy and fairly safe atmosphere for mental escape. She recommends a participatory classroom in which students are involved meaningfully in all aspects of language learning.

"Focus on form" and "focus on meaning" are not mutually exclusive alternatives, according to Littlewood,[8] but a matter of varying emphasis. He offers a continuum that classifies the focus of the student. In "focus on form," student attention is focused on linguistic structure; in "focus on form (plus meaning)," in which exercises are contextualized, students perceive a potential function in real communication; in "focus on meaning (plus form)," students focus on the communicative purpose of the activities in which there is an information gap and a reason for overcoming it; and in "focus on meaning," students use creative language for sharing knowledge, for problem solving, or to meet a true communicative need. A single student may be at different points on the continuum for different patterns, and during any single class activity, different students may focus on meaning at different levels. Rather than a progression from easy to difficult, attention to meaning or concern for form may be present in different combinations at any stage of language learning, and by manipulating the variables of

form and meaning, the teacher can enhance progress toward communication.

Moskowitz notes that "students today want learning to be personal, meaningful, and helpful to them in daily life."[9] Relevance is important in learning a language; it is equally important in enhancing student self-image. Through meaningful personal involvement, both linguistic and communicative competence are strengthened as well as student self-esteem, and they in turn encourage greater meaningful, personal involvement in the language learning process.

Four characteristics of language competence identified by Stern[10] are form, meaning, communicativeness, and creativeness. He states that neglect of any of these areas may be frustrating to the good language learner, even at the beginning of language study. DeSelms[11] specifically cites neglect of creativity as limiting the means by which students arrive at communicative competence and as limiting the scope of the communicative experience. Provision for creative communication in language classes gives language learners the powerful motivating factors of expressing their own ideas and of finding new ideas to be expressed. Personal interpretation of experience and a desire to share that interpretation make the opportunity to express oneself through a language a compelling aspect of the language encounter.

The communication model and activities that follow stem from three assumptions about language learning and language function derived from the foregoing rationale: 1) Language is a personal tool for expressing one's thoughts, 2) communication entails intrapersonal as well as interpersonal exchange,[12] and 3) linguistic and communicative skills may be learned concurrently.

A Communication Model

In spite of widespread agreement that communicative activities are important in the foreign language classroom, a discrepancy between students' knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of the language and their ability to use the language to express themselves continues to exist. For teachers who have not had experience in implementing communicative activities in the classroom, a model that allows students to use the target language in communicative situations may be helpful as a

step toward alleviating this discrepancy among the students. Schulz and Bartz cite three conditions that appear to be necessary for communicative competence to develop.

> First, the student needs authentic, meaningful life situations in which to practice the language; second, he needs the motivation to express himself; and third, he needs the freedom to use the language and to create and experiment linguistically in a supportive classroom environment without fear of ridicule, being rewarded for the content of what he says, rather than having the teacher recoil at his errors.[13]

A small-group model helps to generate these conditions so that creative communication may occur. While the students need meaningful situations that closely resemble normal conversational settings the usual classroom model does not offer realistic communicative opportunities. Most real communication does not take place between two people with 25 or more others listening, not to what is being said, but rather to how it is being said. Students need to practice talking and listening in groups of the size that they will most often encounter in nonclassroom situations, and they need to practice talking and listening to their peers as well as to the teacher.

The small-group model also provides substantially greater interaction time for students than does the whole-classroom model. In a group of four, each student practices one-fourth of the time, while in a class of 30, the student practices one-thirtieth of the time. Even when, pessimistically, one half of the time is lost in small groups because of less teacher control or student "goofing-off," a one-minute recitation per student would take eight minutes in small groups and 30 minutes in a whole-class situation. The time saved by a small-group model can be utilized for additional practice activities, for games, stories, songs, and other extras that teachers often do not have time to schedule.

For the teacher the factors of time and realism may be important, but for the student the most important factor in small-group communication is the inherent meaningfulness that it allows. Each student has the opportunity to express his or her answers, ideas, opinions, or values in a less threatening situation than a whole-class atmosphere conveys and to practice a question, answer, statement, or comment

without overt or covert teacher evaluation of first attempts. Students are usually more willing to convey realistic and personalized information to a small group of peers than they would in the more impersonal and judgmental atmosphere of a large group. According to Snyder,[14] the small group is the favorite activity level of students. They "like small-group activities because they get a chance to participate much more frequently, . . . gain more confidence with the language in a non-threatening situation, and enjoy communicating with their peers in the target language."[15]

The number of students in a group influences the patterns of communication and the amount of interaction. At the university level, groups of five to eight may function effectively; but teachers who use small-group models at the secondary level usually find that a group size of two to four is most effective since groups of five or more often break down into smaller groups and/or fail to utilize the practice time constructively.

Communication Plan A

In one useful communication plan based on a group of four, students are seated so that two students who sit facing each other are seated next to another two students who also face each other (Figure 1.0). In Phase One of the interaction, the students seated across from each other talk (Figure 1.1), in Phase Two the students seated next to each other talk (Figure 1.2), and in Phase Three the students seated diagonally talk (Figure 1.3). In Phase Four, all four students interact.

In one application of this model, students practice the same activity during each of the first three phases, but with increasing competence as they progress through the phases talking to a different student each time.

In another application of this plan, in Phase One students share their own information with each other—information about their own ideas, attitudes, or beliefs; statements about their own lives, families, friends, interests, or activities; their own personalized and individualized thoughts. In Phase Two the students pass on third-person information about their previous partner to their new partner. This information, of

Figure 1

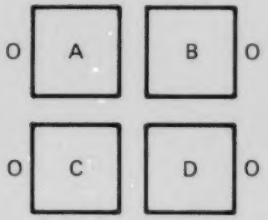


Figure 1.9

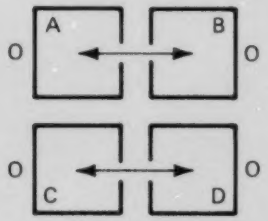
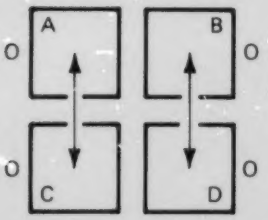


Figure 1.1



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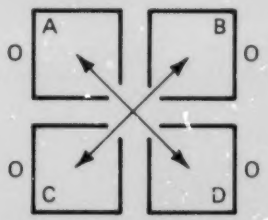

Figure 1.3

course, is real information about someone they know personally. In Phase Three students use second-person questions, either to verify Phase Two information or to ask for additional information. In Phase Four the students agree on shared information that is reported to the class in first-person plural statements, or when they don't agree, in third-person plural statements about other students in the group.

Students using this application to practice the verb *to have*, for example, might make the following statements:

Phase One	A tells B:	I have three cats.
	C tells D:	I have a dog, a bicycle, and a stereo.
Phase Two	B tells D:	Angela has three cats.
Phase Three	D asks A:	Do you have three cats?
	A answers:	Yes.
Phase Four	B reports:	We all have cats except Chris.
		Chris has a dog.

Communication Plan B

In another useful communication plan, four students are seated in a square or a circle. Each student in turn shares a set of statements with the group. After all the students have contributed, each student must be able to recall at least one statement made by each of the other students.

Students using this communication plan to practice telling time might say the following:

Student A: I get home from school at 4:30, I eat supper at 5:30, and I watch TV at 8:00.

Student B: I eat at 5, I study from 5:30 to 7, and I listen to records at 7.

Student C: I get home at 4:15, I eat at 5, and I work from 6 to 10.

Student D: I practice basketball until 6, I get home at 6:30, and I eat at 6:45.

Student A: Barb and Chris, you eat at 5. Don, you eat at 6:45, right?

Student B: (called on by teacher to report to class)
Angela gets home at 4:30. Chris works from 6 to 10. Don plays basketball until 6.

Communication Plan C

In a similar plan, the four students again seated in a square or circle and are asked to share several statements with the group, but instead of giving all the statements together, students take turns sharing one item at a time. Students continue to take turns until all items have been shared, and then each student must be able to recall at least one statement made by each of the other students.

Seating for Small Groups

Students seated and working in small groups get to know each other very quickly, and while this has the advantage of developing the informal atmosphere necessary for real conversation, it also has disadvantages. First, the students get to know each other too well and

spend more time off-task talking in their first language. Second, a spirit of competition between established groups develops, which is then a hindrance to whole-class activities. For optimal use of a small-group model, therefore, it is recommended that the class be reseated at least once a month. Some suggestions for varied seat assignments are:

1. Seat alphabetically by their target language name.
2. Seat alphabetically by their middle name.
3. Seat alphabetically by the name of the street on which they live.
4. Seat numerically by house number or apartment number.
5. Seat numerically by the last four numbers of their phone number.
6. Seat according to their birthdays or zodiac signs.
7. Put vocabulary words in a box in sets of four (the names of four animals, four colors, four seasons, four types of furniture, four sports, etc.), have students draw a word from the box, and seat them according to the set that the word they have drawn belongs to. (The student who draws the word *blue*, for example, sits with the others who have drawn words for colors.)

Students generally perceive such seating plans to be fair, especially since they avoid the labeling or stereotyping that accompanies homogeneous grouping. The use of impartial seating arrangements helps students to get to know most of the other students in the class at a more personal level than occurs in most academic classes. It establishes a group rapport and a class camaraderie within which students feel freer to communicate meaningfully in the target language.

Small groups provide situations for stimulating ideas as well as for communicating them. They provide a friendly environment in which students can develop ideas starting at the intrapersonal level, and then make these ideas known to others. In recommending utilization of a small-group model in the language classroom, Baker points out that, "the development of the student's ability to communicate actively in the target language . . . requires large amounts of student-to-student interaction in meaningful situations."[17] The meaningful situation provides the key for intrapersonal communication to develop, and the student-to-student model provides the incentive for interpersonal communication. Baker also maintains that "there is little that is done in

the whole-class situation that cannot be done at least as well, and in many cases better, in small groups."[18] The following section, therefore, suggests specific small-group activities to develop language as self-expression and to practice sharing with others through language.

Creative Student-Centered Activities

While many of the following activities are highly structured for use in the beginning-level classroom, they encourage student self-expression in selecting language to be used appropriately in specific communicative situations; they allow the students to select and recombine language into new expressions that the student may not have used previously; and they may allow the student to develop new ideas that may be communicated by using known language and language patterns.

The activities have been grouped into three categories: giving information, getting information from others, and extending and imagining.[19]

Giving Information

The following activities require narration of specific existing information. Most students will have information available in order to participate in the activity, but alternatives should be provided for those who don't. The teacher must select the activities that best fit the topic being studied in class, that best suit the character and personality of the students involved, and that can best be accomplished by students at a given level of proficiency.

Snapshots. Students bring a snapshot to class of their family, a friend, a pet, their house, a vacation picture, their own baby picture, a party, a dance, a concert, or a picnic they've attended; and tell their group about it.

Show and tell. Students bring an object from home such as an example of their hobby, an unusual possession, a favorite book, a record, an article of clothing, something from the kitchen, something from the bathroom, or something they use such as a bottle opener or scissors; and describe or explain it to the group.

A secret. Students describe something about themselves that the others don't know, or something they know that the others don't know. After

the group has learned the others' secrets, one student tells the class one of these secrets and the rest of the class tries to guess whose secret it is.

Reverse culture. Students in a foreign language class describe an American cultural topic without using the English words for it and the other students in the group try to guess what it is. Examples are a slumber party, cheerleading, a hayride, being grounded, a pep rally, homeroom, brunch, being stir-crazy, rolling a house, going trick-or-treating, or tailgating. Students in an ESL classroom describe a custom from their native country that is not observed here.

The media. Students describe something they've read in a book, a magazine, or a newspaper, or something they've seen in a movie, on TV, at a concert, at a play, at a game, or at a dance.

Personal events. Students describe a happy, sad, or exciting memory; something unusual, frightening, embarrassing, or fantastic that happened to them; a birthday, a club meeting, a job, a performance, or a class activity in which they have participated.

Personal knowledge. Students tell something that they have special knowledge about such as a hobby, another class, how to do something, or something they have written, experienced, invented, made, or created.

Retelling. Students retell a children's story; a clean, translatable joke (see children's magazines); a famous historical event; or a legend.

Making lists. Students make lists based on a grammar or vocabulary topic. Some examples are lists of famous people and adjectives that describe them, of famous TV personalities and what they would wear, things that can be opened and closed, things that can be put on and taken off, things that can be bought in a drugstore, things that make them happy, things they did yesterday, things they ought to do, things they can do, etc. Students then share their lists with each other.

Time line. Students list six or more events on a selected topic, such as the most important events in their life, the best year of their life, the most important events in one school year, or events from a summer vacation. Students draw time lines and illustrate them with drawings or magazine pictures. (Cut an 8½" by 11" sheet of paper in half crosswise and tape the pieces together so that students have 5½" by 17" papers for their time lines.) Then have students share their time lines with other students.

Getting Information from Others

The activities in this category give students practice in ways to get information rather than to give it.

Guessing games. Students think of one item from a given category, such as a place, a famous person, a household object, a school object, a leisure-time activity, an occupation, etc., and the other students in the group try to guess what it is.

Getting acquainted. Students are given a list based on a vocabulary or grammar topic and must ask questions of other students to find out who fits each statement on the list. Examples of lists are times at which they do various things, activities done on weekends, places students go, or subjects the students are studying.

Mini-bingo. Using a list of 10 to 15 items (articles of clothing, kinds of food, adjectives that describe, or sports and games), ask students to select three or four (those they like best, those they have experienced most recently, or those they do most often) without letting the other students know what items they are selecting. Two students take turns asking each other questions about the items on the list, each student trying to be the first to discover what items the other has selected.

Getting to know you. One student asks another student a series of specific questions that require Yes-No answers until a specified minimum number of Yes answers has been given. Questions should be specific rather than general: "Do you eat spinach?" or "Do you eat at six o'clock?" instead of "Do you eat?" Students then report on each other's affirmative answers.

Writing notes. Two students write questions and then exchange papers. They first write an answer to the other's question and then write another question. They exchange papers again and repeat the process. After a predetermined number of questions and answers has been written, they share the results with the group or with the class.

Mini-interviews. Students prepare a brief list of questions (four to eight is sufficient) on a grammar or vocabulary topic and take turns interviewing each other using these questions. For example, on the topic of cars, students might ask about the color of the car, the age of the car, who drives, who drives most, where they go in the car, how many cars the family has, and what their favorite car is.

Extending and Imagining

The activities that follow ask for extensions, implications, opinions, creativity, or imagination. Since there are no specific correct answers, the teacher should allow brainstorming as long as communication occurs.

Pictures and posters. Students tell what is implied by or what can be inferred from the picture rather than what is actually seen.

Objects. Students make as many statements as possible using the word for an object, or students make as many statements as possible about the object without using the word for the object. Students think of as many uses for the object as possible.

Reactions. Students give as many implications, reactions, or consequences of a statement as possible. If the teacher says, "There's an assembly tomorrow," what would the students' reaction statements be? Students may be asked to bring statements to class for others' reactions, such as "Baseball is boring."

Basket case. Write single words on slips of paper and put the slips in a basket or box. Each group of students must draw a specific number of words (five to ten is sufficient) and then use those words to create a sentence or paragraph.

Basket analogies. Students draw two nouns from a basket, then list their similarities and differences. Using the similarities and differences, students write sentences that give an analogy, a simile, or a metaphor. For example, students who draw the words *book* and *highway* write the sentence, "A book is a highway to the past."

Arguing. Two students prepare statements in favor of and two students prepare statements opposing topics such as censorship, the legal drinking age, the 55 mph speed limit, or dress codes, and then take turns presenting their arguments.

Sharing and supporting. Students share a predetermined number (three to five is sufficient) of values, such as wishes, beliefs, doubts, pet peeves; opinions, such as things they think are beautiful, cruel, inspirational, or trivial; or feelings, such as things that cause happiness, sadness, frustration, satisfaction, or pride.

Opposites. Each of two students in a group makes a list of nouns associated with a pair of opposite adjectives such as happy-sad, ugly-pretty, or fun-boring. After exchanging the lists with two students from another group, they then think of sentences in which the opposite

adjectives are applied to the nouns. For example, think of something happy associated with each of the "sad" nouns. Finally, the students share the sentences with the group.

Figure interpretation. Students are shown an ink blot, a geometric figure, or an abstract painting, and asked to interpret it by answering questions such as what or whom they see in the visual, what feeling it conveys (Is it peaceful, frightening, cold, warm, exciting, shocking?), what its deeper meaning might be, or how they might describe it to someone else.

Sentence expansion. Each group is assigned a letter, and students are given three to five minutes to list as many words as possible that begin with that letter and sound. Then they are given five to ten minutes to write sentences that contain as many words beginning with that letter as possible. The groups' favorite sentences are shared with the class.

Making lists. Students list as many responses as possible to an unexpected situation or activity, such as the things they could do on a Friday night that no one else would do, what they did not do on their summer vacation, or reasons why their homework will be perfect tomorrow. Students take turns sharing their best responses with the group or with the class.

Voting. Students name their favorite from a category (sport, TV program, movie, group, food, color, actor or actress), and from a list of everyone's favorites, students vote to determine the top two for a runoff. Each student must prepare a statement about one of the top two telling why that one is best. After students have had a chance to present their rationales to the class, a vote is taken to determine the class favorite. At the end of the year, prepare a class yearbook with all the favorites.

Problem solving. Students take a problem and brainstorm for solutions. Rank-order the solutions they suggest. Problems may come from Ann Landers or Dear Abby columns, from student suggestions, from the school newspaper, from national polls, or from student-level magazines.

Role-playing. Students take various roles based on typical situations and act them out with each other. For example, one student plays the parent and the other a teenager in situations involving using the car, arriving home late, making the bed, writing letters to relatives, borrowing clothes, or asking for money. Students take the roles of teacher and student in situations involving an explanation of why homework isn't

done, asking teacher to sign a petition, explaining a past or a future absence, or explaining a home situation.

Group compositions. Students are given guiding questions that provide basic linguistic forms and suggest imaginative answers, and they must collectively write a paragraph or paragraphs in response. For example, in a composition on "Going to the Moon," the following questions might be asked: When are you going to the moon? Are you going by rocket, by airplane, by special bicycle, on a cloud? Who is going with you? What are you taking for food, for clothing, for equipment? What are you going to see when you arrive? What are you going to do after you arrive? What are you going to do next and why? When will you return to earth? What will people say when you get here?

Quickies. Sometimes there is a one-to-three-minute time period in class between activities or at the beginning or end of the period. During this time, students are asked to say something in the target language: Say something nice to another student, say something silly, complain about the weather, complain about school, talk to yourself out loud, or list your five favorite words in the target language.

Communication is more than telling others something. It involves having something to tell, that is, formulating a point of view or a personal understanding to be communicated. It involves valuing one's own contributions and being willing to share them with others. It means feeling comfortable in being able to tell something to others and having an opportunity to do so. It means learning to value the contributions of others. Language learning in small groups with creative student-centered activities invites students to explore possibilities within themselves and with others in and through the target language.

Notes

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5. Ibid., p. 249.

6. Wilga M. Rivers, et al., *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of Spanish* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1978), pp. 4-5.
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11. Carolann DeSelms, *A Study of Creativity in College Foreign-Language and English-as-a-Second-Language Classes* (The Ohio State University: Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, 1981).
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ED222064

2 Advancing "Advanced Conversation"

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When a student reaches the second or third year of a language program, he or she may enroll in a course which many schools call "Advanced Conversation." This course title more often than not is a misnomer. It implies that advanced, even fluent speaking in the foreign language will take place in the classroom. Thus, it is our experience that many teachers consider advanced speaking ability almost a prerequisite to the course, although it should be the course objective. In other words, what many teachers expect students to bring to the course, few will have achieved at its conclusion. This failure may be due in part to the structure and/or content of the course. From our perspective, however, based on several years of experimenting with many structures and content packages for advanced conversation, the instructor needs to approach the development of this course with an awareness that most students enrolled will probably be suffering from an acute lack of self-confidence when conversing in the target language.

To pinpoint the cause of this problem is not the intent here. Regardless of the method or methods employed, most students, after one or two years of language instruction, probably have had broad exposure to the language, its grammar, syntax, considerable vocabulary, and even some of its linguistic idiosyncrasies. On paper then, they are prepared for "Advanced Conversation." The problem is that these students know the language pretty well, but will not necessarily feel confident in trying to use that knowledge to converse. Lacking self-confidence, the individual student fears embarrassment if he or she makes a mistake in front of others, especially since the student allegedly knows better; oftentimes, he or she will not try and hence will not improve. This dilemma might be imagined symbolically as a funnel with

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a very large upper portion, but with a tiny hole at the bottom. All of the student's previously acquired knowledge of the language rests, or stagnates, in the upper portion, and the small amount of that knowledge he or she is able to use confidently in conversation is that which passes through the tiny hole.

With this insight, the instructor is ready to develop a course in advanced conversation that will allow the student to learn to use comfortably and conversationally what he or she already knows.

A good way to realize this goal is to avoid using materials or course structures that have as their obvious or stated objective the ennancement of the student's vocabulary and command of grammar in the target language. Though this statement may seem illogical, we feel that the use of such materials and structures will only pour more "knowledge" into the top of the funnel, possibly discouraging the student from further study in the language because the student senses that he or she is not orally functional and therefore becomes frustrated. Both the material and the class structure, above all, should allow the student to relax.

Following are the criteria we use in developing an advanced conversation course:

I. Have students work in groups (ideally four to a group in a class that should maximally have twenty students) 75 percent or more of the time.
II. Have a plan for each class, as well as a master plan for the course, but allow the students a major role in deciding on the direction they want to follow with the assignments.
III. Use only those materials that allow for individual expression and creativity.
IV. Have as the daily and long-range objectives of the course,
    a. self-improvement, and
    b. interpersonal communication.
V. Require self- and peer-group evaluation.

We will now embark on a discussion of each criterion.

I. There are many opposing and supporting statements on small-group work in language learning.[1] In our opinion the advantages outweigh the disadvantages.

First, the individual student usually experiences a reduction in tension when he or she has to perform only before three or four peers and not the entire class, as well as the instructor. Soon a level of confidence develops in the group and self-consciousness diminishes. Second, supervision by the teacher can be regulated. The teacher can supervise individual or group work when it is needed, or when help is requested. But the teacher may opt to stay back and allow the students within the same group to correct each other. Since self-improvement is one of the stated course objectives, this correction procedure is very important. Usually one of the members of the group will call attention to an error if it is serious enough to warrant correction. Criticism is easier to accept from a peer than from the more fluent teacher who, after all, will be giving the final grades. Third, students working in small groups simply speak more during the hour than they do in a whole-class setting. More attempts at speaking will usually increase self-confidence and, with proper corrections, ultimately accuracy.

The setting allows the instructor an opportunity to exercise individual student-need assessment and to shift students from one group to another in order to achieve a desired balance of linguistic and social compatibility.

II. In planning for a class period or the entire course, we believe that little emphasis should be placed on the completion of an activity or sequence of activities as designed. They, after all, should be the vehicle to the end, which is conversation or, as we prefer, interpersonal communication, not the end itself. Groups should be permitted, even expected, to digress in varying degrees from the main thrust of an activity. When they do so, they are being spontaneous and creative with the language and usually enjoy themselves and learn more than if required to reach conclusions in an assignment. This does not preclude reaching closure if that is desirable. In other words, the conversational topics and their treatment are secondary. Of primary concern is the students' success in expressing themselves.

III. Few prepared texts for advanced-level conversation, well-intended and carefully written as they may be, can remain pertinent and interest-

ing to the individual for an entire course. Our major reason for not using a textbook is that we have seen none that truly relates to the individual and motivates him or her to self-expression and creativity. This is because the author has presupposed what the student is interested in talking about. Usually the topics presented in the book either highlight the culture, literature, and history of the language studied or present so-called controversial questions. In the case of the former, the student probably has read or heard the same information in a previous class or will in a civilization or literature course. What individual thought can be expressed about historical or cultural facts? As for the latter, is not controversy relative to time and space? There are no guarantees that what is controversial today will even be remembered five, ten or more years from now. Hence, such texts tend to become outdated quickly.

There are exercises and strategies which have been developed, mostly in English, that have as their objectives self-awareness, self-actualization, and self-expression.[2] If the teacher wishes to use these materials other than in English, he or she will have to translate and adapt them for presentation in the target language. Their proper use generally will provide the students a chance to find out what they want to talk about and allow for individual expression.

A sample strategy, or exercise, is the one we call "Pictures and Values." In this strategy, each student is assigned one or two days in advance to bring a pictorial representation of his three most important values in life. He may use personal photographs, or may take them from magazines or newspapers. The day of the activity, the class is divided into the normal small groups. Each student presents his pictures and the individual values are discussed and shared. This process offers several learning possibilities. In selecting the pictures, the student must face the issue of his personal values in life; he or she may have the same values as another in the group, but may have more abstract or concrete notions of them. If different cultures are represented in the group, this exercise will probably bring out the issue of culture *vis-à-vis* values. Finally, and of major concern to the teacher, the student is enhancing his or her language skills. The student must research the vocabulary needed to present and discuss his or her values in the target language,

and will be exposed to the vocabulary used by fellow group members. When presenting the material, the student will use the first-person verb form; when asking direct questions of others, he or she will use the second person; and when discussing the ideas and opinions of others, the student will use the third person.

Changing verb tense is merely a matter of selecting a strategy which by design must be carried out in the desired tense. Two further sample strategies are included in the appendix. The first, "My Week," is designed for practice in the past tense; the second, "My Coat of Arms," allows for multi-tense exercises.

IV. We believe that communication is the ultimate purpose of language. Ideally that communication should be linguistically accurate. Realistically, this may not always be the case. Edgardo Torres, in a speech given to the Advanced Placement Conference in San Francisco, California, referring to today's student, stated, "He cannot wait for perfection, for high linguistic competence, which does not assure him a better way to communicate."[3] In that same speech, Torres also commented, "In the teaching of foreign languages we somewhat fail to recognize that the student is more interested in 'skills using' than in 'skills getting.'"[4]

Agreeing with Torres, it is our experience that "skills using" is best achieved by incorporating the following principles into the advanced conversation classroom:

1. Establishment and maintenance of personal contact between all members of the class, including the instructor. (At times this may involve more personal engagement than the instructor is accustomed to.)
2. Building student self-confidence in the use of the target language by having the student first of all talk about the subject he or she is most familiar with and most interested in: self. The thematic focus gradually changes from self to peers to issues beyond the immediate classroom setting.

This, in conjunction with the peer-correction procedure described earlier, affords the student the possibility of discovering his or her own linguistic shortcomings in the target language. Depending on the nature of the problems, the student may attempt to do his or her own remedial work or to seek guidance from the instructor.

V. The individual instructor may or may not establish a strict attendance policy. Nevertheless, he or she should make the students aware that presence in class is a necessity for progress in conversational ability.

Also, since the course is based on interpersonal relationships, the attitude of one person can be a strong determining factor in the progress of many. Optimally, all students should bear their linguistic capabilities in mind and strive to improve them, as well as those of their classmates. Undesirable attitudes are most often displayed by the superior student who flaunts knowledge of the target language and thus dominates and inhibits the group; and by the inferior student who makes no effort to participate, holding back the group.

Taking attendance and attitude into account, the instructor assesses the individual's performance through careful daily observation. Brief taped reactions to the discussions in class, which are turned in periodically, may serve as a tool for further evaluation of the student's contribution to the course.

Since the development of speaking skills is an accumulative process, we find it very difficult to design other testing instruments and recognize that our techniques tend to be subjective. In order to balance the instructor's subjectivity in the evaluation process, we depend heavily on frequent self- and peer-group evaluation. The student is asked not only to give him- or herself and group members a letter grade, but also to substantiate the grades by stating a rationale. As a follow-up, the instructor meets with each individual and, using all the evaluation data, discusses current performance, any problems, and, of course, the grade.

In conclusion, what we are advocating in this paper is guided, but not prescribed, conversation. What comes from the mouth of a student at the beginning of the course may be hardly recognizable as one of the modern languages. On the other hand, improvement is usually inevitable and we would rather hear a student commit several linguistic atrocities in a single statement while expressing individual thoughts and ideas than to listen to him or her struggle to find the right person, tense, gender, or case while the impact of the thought as well as the interest of those listening have diminished, if not vanished. Through interpersonal communication, confidence will increase; confidence will result in more experimentation; experimentation usually will increase self-improvement, which in turn should lead to more linguistic precision and greater fluency.

Appendix I
My Week*

I. Indicate five things that you did this week that you feel good about.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

II. Identify a situation or person that made you feel threatened this week. How did you react?

III. What did you put off doing this week?

IV. Identify three decisions you made this week.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

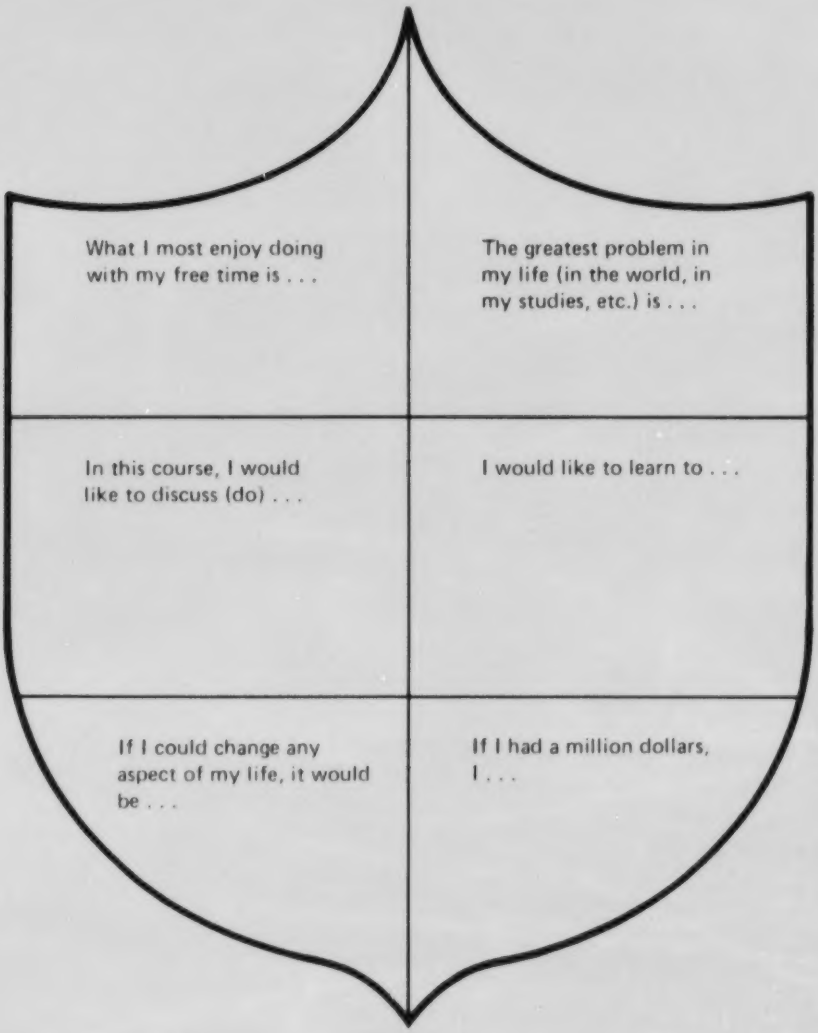
V. Identify three people who made you feel good as a result of their actions. What did each one do?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

VI. Were you in strong disagreement with someone this week? How did you settle it?

*This exercise is to be conducted in the target language.

Appendix II
My Coat of Arms*


What I most enjoy doing with my free time is . . .
The greatest problem in my life (in the world, in my studies, etc.) is . . .
In this course, I would like to discuss (do) . . .
I would like to learn to . . .
If I could change any aspect of my life, it would be . . .
If I had a million dollars, I . . .

*This exercise is to be conducted in the target language.

Notes

1. An article that summarizes the pros and cons is Renée S. Disick's "Developing Communication Skills Through Small Group Techniques," *American Foreign Language Teacher*, Winter 1972, pp. 3–7.
2. An example is Sidney Simon, et al., *Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students* (New York: Hart, 1972); for an example of a strategy adapted for modern language instruction, see Gary M. Godfrey, "Who Will Live?" *Foreign Language Annals* 10 (1977), pp. 47-51.
3. Edgardo E. Torres, "How Foreign Language Develops Character by Widening the Learner's World" (Schenectady, NY: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 055 494, 1971), p. 13.
4. Torres, p. 8.

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3
Using Alternate Methods in FL/ESL Classes

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Diversity is a catchword in language classes, whether they are foreign language classes or English-as-a-second-language classes. Groups of students with wide age, ability, and interest ranges are common. In addition, student learning styles and goals in the language classroom can vary tremendously. Yearning for the simpler past when differences were frequently ignored may be a bittersweet pleasure on Friday night; however, Monday morning brings a new reality that must be faced in different ways from the past. Older methods do still work, but they can be structured in new ways for more effective teaching. And new methods need to be added to the language teacher's bag of tricks.

Increased individualization of goals and activities may be the first objective in language classes of the 80s. This can be accomplished by providing a variety of concrete learning activities for individuals and small groups. It can also be accomplished by revamping tried-and-true activities so that the emphasis is on what the student is doing and not on what the teacher is doing.

Individualization may conjure up an image of long hours of teacher preparation time; it is truly a time-consuming process to individualize an entire language program. However, the activities to be described can be used on a part-time basis, as the teacher has time to develop them.

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Concrete Learning Activities

Concrete activities involve the student in doing something other than reading or listening as primary activities. He or she may be playing a game requiring use of the language, or may be manipulating materials designed to teach a specific word or grammar point. The games and

activities are self-checking or have answer keys so that the student does not need the teacher for reinforcement.

"Circles" is a vocabulary game for two to four players. Pictures of words to be learned are pasted on circles of cardboard. All the circles are turned face down; each player picks one circle and must give its foreign language name. If successful, the player keeps the circle; if not, the circle is returned to the pile. The winner is the player with the most circles at the end of the game. Each circle is numbered, and the number corresponds to an answer key. This game can be adapted to other uses, too. Instead of pictures, the circles could have grammatical terms to be defined, landmarks to be identified, or words to be used in sentences.

Dice games can help students practice verb forms. One cube has subject pronouns on its six sides; another has different verbs. Students roll the dice and give the verb form that goes with the pronoun that turns up. A third die with tense names can be added; then the object is to give the correct form of the tense rolled. Dice with adjectives and nouns can help practice adjective forms.

Board games of various types can provide vocabulary, grammar, and cultural information practice. Students move down a soccer field toward their goal for every correct answer or move backward for an incorrect answer. The questions or vocabulary words are printed on cards which each student draws in turn. Playing fields make good game boards, and the rules can be adapted to fit each sport.

A less elaborate game board can be made from a manila folder, paste-on labels, and pictures. The labels and pictures are pasted on the manila folder in such a way that the students move from point A to point B. Students move the number of spaces they roll on a die. When they land, they must translate the word printed on the label or describe what is going on in the picture. An incorrect answer moves the student back two or more spaces. Adding a few free spaces or a move-ahead-two-spaces makes the game more fun. The game becomes a conversational activity when questions are printed on the labels. Then the student must answer the question in order to advance.

Conversation questions can be tape-recorded for an active listening activity. After hearing the question, the student stops the machine and answers. Several students working together can usually help each other with difficult questions.

Children's party games can be adapted to the language class. Fill a bag with ordinary objects; the student reaches in and must name the first object he or she touches. Or, have a tray full of common things. After the students look at the tray for a minute, it is covered, and then the students must write down as many things as they can remember.

"Out of Sorts" is a manipulative activity for grammar. Common pronouns are printed on cards which students have to sort by category, such as subject pronouns, object pronouns, etc. Commonly confused irregular verbs could be another set of cards, as could verb endings for different tenses, and various noun determiners–definite and indefinite articles, possessive adjectives, and so on.

"Go Fish" games can help students practice vocabulary that is learned by category, for example, food or clothing. Students try to collect four cards to make a set by asking each other, "Do you have any ___ ?" The winner is the one who collects the greatest number of complete sets. Students can make these card games by cutting and pasting magazine pictures on index cards.

Another category-vocabulary activity has words printed on cards which then have to be sorted. For example, indoor clothing would be separated from outdoor clothing, foods from drinks, public places from private places. A colored dot on the back of one set of cards would provide the answer key.

An interesting cultural activity has students look at slides or pictures of typical scenes from the country they are studying. The students then discuss what is similar or dissimilar to their own countries.

Last but not least are the commercially prepared games for the young children of the country whose language is being studied. These games teach vocabulary, geography, history, and many cultural items.

Revamped Paper-and-Pencil Activities

The following activities are more traditional, but they have been altered for use by individuals or small groups. Like the concrete activities, they have answer keys to increase student independence.

Several activities on a similar theme can be grouped together to create a unit. For example, the objectives are to learn the verb "to go," place-name vocabulary, and some facts about the transportation system. Students learn the pronunciation of the verb and the vocabulary

from a tape recording. They complete fill-in exercises with the verb and the vocabulary and check their own answers with the key. Next, they play a teacher-made board game that practices the same verb and vocabulary. Then they join a conversation group where they talk about where they are going this weekend. They learn about the transportation system by reading various materials or by viewing a filmstrip. The final activity is a test on all the material.

Irregular verbs are a good starting place for creating similar units. The verb "to want" can be combined with vocabulary for various possessions teenagers want to have. The verb "to know" can be connected to leisure activities students know how to do. Then comparisons can be made between American and foreign pastimes.

Filmstrips can be used by individuals and small groups, too. Most filmstrip projectors can be set up to project on a small screen, and there are projectors that resemble television sets for use by small groups. Earphones can be used with a jack box so that the tape recording does not disturb the rest of the class. Questionnaires for the students to complete can direct their attention to the information the teacher feels is important.

Pictures have many uses in a language classroom. For this one, which provides reading and vocabulary practice, a picture is labeled with the vocabulary to be learned. Students use the vocabulary to complete sentences in fill-in exercises. Students can create the fill-in exercises for each other. The first assignment is to use the labeled words in sentences; then, the teacher duplicates the sentences with blanks for the vocabulary.

Another vocabulary idea is to provide materials for students to make their own flash cards. A 4 × 6 card cut into six pieces provides easily portable cards.

Analogies provide an interesting format for bright students to review vocabulary originally learned by category. Mother:daughter::father:____ , is an example. This is another activity that students can create. These analogies can be written on index cards with the answers on the back.

Every teacher has collections of textbooks and workbooks that can be put to work to help students review and earn extra credit. A permanent extra-credit learning station set up in a corner of the classroom

can house materials that are changed weekly. The presentation can be elaborate, with a chart or tape recording explaining the grammar point, or it can simply direct the student to review text pages before completing the exercises.

Language teachers can borrow ideas for using dictionaries from elementary-school teachers. Directions such as these can be typed on index cards: find twenty food names, each beginning with a different letter of the alphabet. Different categories can be substituted for foods, and related words can be sought: find twenty words related to a season, for example.

Management

There are many ways these activities can be incorporated into a traditional program. One day a week can be set aside for small-group and individual work. Students can be assigned to specific activities, or they can choose their own activities after listening to a description of what is available. A permanent extra-credit station with materials designed for use outside class is an approach described earlier. Some activities can be supplementary work or rewards for students with an A average, or for students who finish their work early. While the teacher is leading a conversation or remedial group, the rest of the class can be working in small groups.

Teachers using these activities more frequently than once a week will probably need to develop a new grading system. Activities can be assigned points; students then have to accumulate so many points for an A, 90 percent of that for a B, and so on. If students are given a list of activities available for the week, they can check off what they have done and initial each other's papers for nonwritten work they did with a partner. Then, at the end of the week, they tally their points and turn the list in to the teacher.

Students' needs for greater individualization in classrooms mean that teachers need to develop ways to meet them. Concrete, high-interest activities can provide meaningful language practice for small groups, as can traditional exercises redesigned for individual or small-group work. Alternate methods are effective!

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4
Native Speaker Reaction as a Criterion for Error Correction

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Investigation and discussion of error severity became a major concern of foreign language educators in the 1970s. Errors were recognized as natural and necessary to the process of second language acquisition.[1] Teachers were urged to show tolerance for certain errors, especially when they occurred in communicative rather than mechanical activities.[2] Error severity became a debatable issue, since all errors were no longer evils to be eliminated immediately. Theorists began to advocate selective error correction strategies that would fit the severity of the correction to the severity of the error.[3]

In the 1980s, the discussion continues. Teachers are encouraged to base classroom correction on a hierarchy of error types, or on a scale of priority for correction.[4] According to Ervin, this yet-undefined hierarchy might be envisioned as a cube that represents the field of error. This cube, presented in Figure 1, is formed by the intersections of three axes: competence/performance, comprehensibility/noncomprehensibility, stigmatization/tolerance.[5] The competence/performance axis is based on a distinction suggested by Chomsky.[6] Competence errors reflect true gaps of knowledge, or errors that the learner cannot correct even when prompted to do so; performance errors, on the other hand, are characterized as slips, which the learner is able to correct. The comprehensibility dimension pertains to how much an error interferes with meaning. The stigmatization or irritation axis is an affective dimension concerning the degree to which the native listener is bothered by the error and is thus likely to attribute negative social characteristics to the foreign speaker. Ervin suggests that an error considered severe on each of the three axes would have the highest

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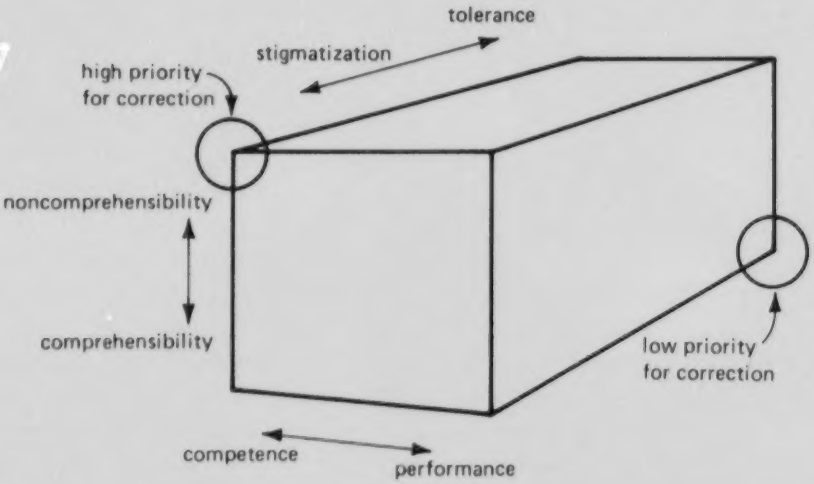
Figure 1
Ervin's Model for Error Severity



priority for correction, and that an error considered minor on each of the three axes would have the lowest priority for correction.

Foreign language teachers often add another criterion for gauging error severity—pedagogical focus. As Cohen[7] and Johansson[8] point out, errors relevant to the pedagogical focus demand stringent correction. Pedagogical focus pertains not only to the syllabus, that is, to the points covered in the course, but also to particular activities: pronunciation errors should be most rigorously corrected during pronunciation practice, grammar errors during grammar practice, errors in specific features during drills that focus on those features, and so forth. Certain competence errors then, according to Ervin's model, might be errors outside the pedagogical focus and would therefore require initial presentation or reteaching rather than immediate and stringent correction.

We begin the 1980s, therefore, with four main criteria for determining error severity:

1. the degree to which an error reflects learner competence (a linguistic criterion);

2. the degree to which an error interferes with the meaning of the utterance (a linguistic criterion);
3. the degree to which an error irritates the listener and is thus likely to stigmatize the speaker (a sociolinguistic criterion);
4. the degree to which an error is relevant to the pedagogical focus of the course syllabus and of the activity at hand (a pedagogical criterion).

This article will present and discuss research findings concerning the sociolinguistic aspect, the third of these four criteria. This rather general introduction to the problem of error severity aims to place in its proper perspective the forthcoming discussion of the irritation and potentially stigmatizing effect of errors made by foreign speakers. Native speaker affective reaction to learner error is an important and relatively little understood phenomenon that constitutes one aspect of the complex notion of error severity with which foreign language teachers have to deal every day in their classrooms.

This article will 1) outline a research design used to investigate sensitivities to 15 types of grammatical errors typically made in speech by American learners of French; 2) summarize findings of the outlined research and compare these findings to data available in Spanish, German, and English; 3) present research findings concerning teacher evaluation of grammatical error in French as compared with native speaker evaluation of these same errors; and 4) suggest a pedagogical error hierarchy for French and means by which this hierarchy, and eventually those constructed for other target languages, might be used in syllabus design, in the selection of instructional methodology, and in the creation of classroom error correction strategies.

Research Design for Investigating Affective Reaction to Grammatical Error

A 1981 survey conducted by this author addressed two general questions:[9]

1. Which grammatical errors made by Americans speaking French are more irritating to native French speakers in France?
2. To what extent are these same errors irritating to teachers of French in the U.S.?

Responses to the first question suggest an error hierarchy for teachers to use in establishing priorities for correcting student speech. Responses to the second question suggest the degree to which the intuitions of French teachers reflect the attitudes of native French speakers, and thus the degree to which teachers may be encouraged to follow their own instincts when assessing error severity.

To answer these two questions 15 types of grammatical errors considered to be typical of lower-level American students of French were investigated (Figure 2). These 15 error types represent five parts of speech according to traditional grammar classification. Examples of

Figure 2
Error Categories Investigated

Definite Article

1. wrong article with an animate noun: le soeur
2. absence of a definite article: Il est vrai que ___ mal mène les hommes.
3. wrong article with an inanimate noun: le voiture

Adjective Agreement

4. nonagreement with a person's name: Marie est français__ .
5. nonagreement with an inanimate noun and no other gender marker: les voitures verts
6. nonagreement with an inanimate noun and including another gender marker: la voiture vert__

Preposition Between Verb and Infinitive

7. absence of a required preposition: Il apprend ___ jouer du piano.
8. use of à for de: Il a oublié à le faire.
9. use of de for à: Il apprend de jouer du piano.

Verb Morphology

10. third-person plural nouns with regular singular verbs, defined as verbs in which the singular/plural distinction is marked by a pronounced consonant in the plural: Paul et Marc vend___ des bijoux.
11. deviant forms of irregular verbs: je vas
12. agreement with indirect object pronoun or direct object pronoun instead of with the subject pronoun: nous vous demandez

Clitic Pronoun

13. direct object for indirect object pronoun in the third perso[illegible]e le demande de venir.
14. preposition and stressed pronoun for indirect object pronoun: Je demande à lui de venir.
15. stressed pronoun for subject pronoun: moi dois aller

these 15 error types were embedded in 110 pairs of sentences, so that the two sentences of each pair were identical except for the error contained by each. For example,

a. Anne et Marie sont anglais__ de naissance.
b. Anne et Marie est anglaises de naissance.

Judges listened to a recording of the 110 sentence pairs made by a female American university student, who was considered to have good pronunciation, and indicated on an answer sheet which of the two erroneous sentences they preferred. The sentence pairs were constructed so that an example of each of the 15 error types was matched with an example of every other error type; this procedure yielded 105 pairs of sentences. Three sentence pairs were then repeated to measure the reliability of the test in terms of consistency of response. In addition, two pairs matched an erroneous sentence with a correct sentence to measure the validity of the test in terms of the judges' success in identifying the error under investigation. Lexical items used in presenting the errors differed from sentence pair to sentence pair in order to encourage generalization of the results from errors in particular lexical items to errors representative of grammatical categories. All lexical items were taken from the *Français fondamental* basic word list in order to minimize reactions to differences in lexical frequency.

Figure 3
Judges Sampled

Non-Teaching Native French Speakers
(N = 290)

Paris (N = 175)			*Nancy* (N = 115)		
Adult	*Lycée*	*C.E.S.*	*Adult*	*Lycée*	*C.E.S.*
48	84	43	44	30	41

Teachers
(N = 125)

Native French Speakers	*Junior High/ High School*	*University Instructors (B.A./M.A.)*	*University Faculty (Ph.D)*
31	31	33	30

Judges included native French speakers tested in France and teachers of French tested in the U.S. Native French speakers came from two regions, Paris and Nancy, and included three age groups: *C.E.S.* students,[10] *lycée* students,[11] and adults.[12] Teachers included four groups: native French speakers teaching at all levels, and native English speakers who were junior high/high school teachers, university instructors,[13] and university faculty.[14] Figure 3 shows these groups, with the number of judges in each. In addition to judging the paired sentences containing the errors, all judges completed a sociolinguistic background questionnaire which allowed post-hoc analysis of the following variables: for native French speakers in France—age, sex, socioeconomic status, experience with English; for teachers in the U.S.—age, sex, years of teaching experience, skills emphasized in the classroom, proficiency in French.

Separate error hierarchies of the 15 error types were established for each group of judges through a count procedure which considered the number of times an error type was chosen as preferred by each group of judges. The error hierarchies for the different groups of judges were then compared using Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation.

Findings

For adults and *lycée* students, the following hierarchy of errors was revealed for part of speech categories, from most to least irritating:

verbs,
pronouns,
definite articles,
prepositions,
adjectives.

These findings in French show striking similarity to previous findings for that language, and to findings in Spanish, German, and English. Errors in verb morphology were found to be highly irritating in spoken and written French by Piazza,[15] in spoken Spanish by Druist[16] and Guntermann,[17] in written Spanish by Chastain,[18] in spoken German by Politzer,[19] and in spoken English by Johansson.[20] High sensitivity to errors involving pronouns was observed in spoken and written French by Piazza, in spoken French by Kolstrup and Sand,[21] and in spoken

English by Tucker and Sarofim.[22] Nonagreements of definite articles and adjectives with nouns were found to be among the less bothersome errors in French, Spanish, and German, according to the studies of Piazza, Chastain, and Politzer. In French, errors involving prepositions between verbs and infinitives were examined only by Kolstrup and Sand, who described them as quite bothersome, but did not rank them for degree of irritation in relation to other error types. The findings of these studies in French, Spanish, German, and English are thus basically in accordance.

With the exception of the survey in French presented here and the 1978 Johansson study in English, all studies mentioned examined the reactions of native speakers who were from a single age group, either adults or teenagers. Johansson investigated the reactions of schoolchildren, ages 12-13, and adults, ages 18-20, to errors in verb complementation, concord, and word order in English, to find the same relative severity of errors for both age groups. In the French survey, the younger *C.E.S.* students were more sensitive to gender errors (categories 1, 3, 4, 5, 6) and less sensitive to errors involving prepositions (categories 7, 8, 9) than were the adults. In fact, a continuum was noted, apparently based on age/year in school. *C.E.S.* students were most irritated by gender errors, adults were least irritated, and the reactions of *lycée* students were intermediate.

It might be speculated that high sensitivity to gender errors reflects a normative attitude associated with the prescriptive orientation of the school environment. Students, younger ones in particular, have their language closely monitored by teachers. This monitoring most likely includes corrections of gender agreement in spelling. Greenbaum[23] suggests that persons often base judgments of linguistic acceptability on what they believe to be the opinions of parents, teachers, and others whose authority they respect. It is not unlikely, therefore, that students should transfer their teachers' low tolerance of gender errors in their written work to a low tolerance of gender errors in the speech of foreigners.

Different sensitivity to gender error might also be related to social class. Post-hoc analysis showed that *lycée* students with fathers in low nonmanual occupations were more sensitive to errors involving gender than *lycée* students whose fathers had manual occupations. Generally

speaking, the *C.E.S.* students used in this survey were from lower socioeconomic backgrounds than were the adults. Labov[24] found that persons from the lower middle class tend to be the most linguistically insecure, and thus the most normative. The relatively low tolerance of gender errors by *lycée* students with fathers in lower middle-class occupations supports Labov's findings, offering further evidence to substantiate the claim that low tolerance of gender errors reflects a normative linguistic attitude.

Finally, greater sensitivity to gender errors might be associated with the increased sexual awareness characteristic of adolescence.[25] Error categories 1 and 4 concern use of the wrong gender with a noun depicting a person whose sex is obvious. *C.E.S.* students rated these two errors first and third most irritating among the five errors involving gender.[26]

Apart from the difference in affective reaction associated with age, the native French speakers showed remarkably similar reactions to the 15 error types; that is, significant similarities were found between the evaluations of judges of both sexes, from both geographic regions, and with different amounts of experience with English.

In addition to showing a difference in reaction to grammatical error based on the age of the judge, the research presented here revealed two linguistic factors that had not been suggested previously: violations of structural patterns of the target language and expectations for Americans speaking the target language. Figure 4 presents the basic hierarchy, a composite of the evaluations of all French judges, including adults, *lycée* students, and *C.E.S.* students. As Figure 4 illustrates, part of speech may not be the best index to the degree of irritation caused by an error. If we consider the category 'definite article,' we notice that absence of an obligatory definite article (category 2) constitutes a more irritating error than use of the incorrect definite article (categories 1 and 3). Inconsistency in gender agreement, where the same noun has two modifiers of different genders (category 6), is more bothersome than nonagreement of gender where only a single, erroneous modifier is involved. In the latter case, the problem may be attributed to not knowing the gender of a particular noun; in the former, the error must be attributed not only to not knowing a gender, but to not adhering to a basic principle of the French language—articles and adjectives

Figure 4
Error Hierarchy Based on Native Speaker Reaction

	Rank	*Error Category*	*Category Number*
Most serious	1	je vas	V 11
	2	nous vous demandez	V 12
	3	je le demande de venir	PR 13
	4	moi dois aller	PR 15
	5	je demande à lui	PR 14
	6	__mal mène les hommes	DA 2
	7	le soeur	DA 1
	8	apprendre de faire qqch.	PP 9
	9	la voiture vert	ADJ 6
	10	apprendre __ faire qqch.	PP 7
	11	oublier à faire qqch.	PP 8
	12	Marie est français	ADJ 4
	13	le voiture	DA 3
	14	les voitures verts	ADJ 5
Least serious	15	Paul et Marc vend	V 10

agree with the noun they modify. In both cases, absence of an obligatory definite article and inconsistency in gender agreement, a basic structural pattern of French is violated. Evidence suggests that at least in this area French and Spanish may differ. Both the Piazza study and the research reported here show that in French omission of the definite article is more irritating than use of the incorrect definite article; both Guntermann, who examined reactions to oral errors, and Chastain, who examined reactions to written errors, show that in Spanish the reverse is true.

In addition to suggesting that native judges are sensitive to violations of basic structural patterns, the findings of this research suggest that native speakers have certain expectations of French spoken by Americans and that, in some instances, they make allowances for certain expected errors. For example, errors in verbs which may be attributed to pronunciation (category 10) were rated as much less irritating than other errors involving verbs (categories 11 and 12). Several judges commented that the absence of final consonants is so frequent in the French of Americans that native French speakers automatically correct grammatical errors involving final consonants in correcting for the American accent. Judges also commented that, since grammatical gender is a concept foreign to Americans, a certain number of errors is to be expected. Native speakers were less irritated by nonagreement

with nouns having only grammatical gender (categories 3 and 5) than by nonagreement with nouns showing natural gender (categories 1 and 4). It is obviously not difficult to use the proper gender with animate nouns or with people's names which are clearly marked for sex such as *soeur* (sister) or Marie: these errors were indeed considered more serious than errors with naturally 'neuter' nouns such as *livre* (book).

The native judges did not always demonstrate higher tolerance for errors made by the American speaker, however. For example, judges expressed considerable irritation toward two sociolinguistically stigmatized errors, *je vas*, *vous faisez*, *vous disez* in category 11, and *moi dois*, *toi dois* in category 15. The former errors are stereotypically associated with popular French;[27] use of *moi* and *toi* as subject pronouns is a feature stereotypic of foreigner talk.[28] Both were ranked among the most irritating errors by all groups of judges. In these instances at least, native speakers seem to have prescriptively normative expectations for the French spoken by Americans.

It is thus clear in studying the basic hierarchy presented in Figure 4 that part of speech alone is not an adequate index to error severity based on affective reaction. At least two additional factors should be considered: violation of structural patterns and expectations particular to foreigner speech. Any pedagogical hierarchy that seeks to reflect the degree of irritation caused by grammatical errors should take these two factors into consideration.

Teacher Evaluation of Error

Before establishing a pedagogical hierarchy for error correction, it is useful to examine how closely the sensitivities of teachers of foreign languages in the U.S. resemble the sensitivities of native speakers of those languages. At present, most foreign language teachers follow their intuitions in gauging error severity. Are these intuitions adequately representative of the opinions of native speakers?

The research reported here investigated this question. The teachers of French teaching at all levels, both native speakers of French and native speakers of Enlgish, reacted to the 15 types of grammatical errors in much the same way as the nonteaching native French speakers tested in France. Comparisons of hierarchies between each group of

teachers and each group of native speakers showed similarity at a significant level. With regard to gender errors, teachers took an intermediary position between adults and *C.E.S.* students, being generally more sensitive to gender errors than the adults and less sensitive to gender errors than the *C.E.S.* students. Of the three groups of native English-speaking teachers, the junior high/high school teachers were most irritated by gender errors. In fact, the reactions of junior high/high-school teachers were most similar to the reactions of the *C.E.S.* students; the reactions of university faculty were most similar to the reactions of the adults.

This difference might be associated with the texts used by these groups of teachers. Junior high and senior high texts are often quite preoccupied with gender; lower-level college texts also place a strong emphasis on gender; advanced language texts and certainly the use of literary works assume basic mastery of gender, and thus the pedagogical focus of advanced language and literature courses is elsewhere. It would not be surprising to find teachers more sensitive to errors that are central to the pedagogical focus of their classes.

A Pedagogical Hierarchy for Error Correction in French

Although it appears that teacher intuition provides a fairly accurate estimate of error severity, it might be useful to formalize a pedagogical hierarchy based on the reactions of native French speakers. As stated previously, this hierarchy must take into account part of speech, structural patterns, and expectations for foreigner speech. The results of this survey suggest the hierarchy in Figure 5. This hierarchy is based mainly on the reactions of adults and *lycée* students in that gender errors are considered relatively nonserious. When our students go to France, they are more likely to make contact with adults and *lycée* students than with *C.E.S.* students. Teachers who are preparing students to interact with *C.E.S.* students would, of course, want to use a hierarchy based on the reactions of these younger people.

Classroom Correction and Evaluation

Teachers might consider this pedagogical hierarchy of irritation to error together with the criteria of comprehensibility, competence/

Figure 5
Pedagogical Hierarchy Based on Native Speaker Reaction

(Error types, indicated in parentheses, refer to subcategories given in Figure 2)

More Serious Errors
- Verb Morphology Not Attributable to Pronunciation
  - je vas (11)
  - nous vous demandez (12)
- Pronouns
  - je le demande (13)
  - moi dois (15)
  - je demande à lui (14)
- Omission of Definite Articles
  - ___ mal (2)

Intermediate Errors
- Inconsistency in Gender Agreement
  - la voiture vert (6)
- Non-Agreement with Nouns Showing Natural Gender
  - le soeur (1)
  - Marie est français (4)
- Prepositions Between Verbs and Infinitives
  - apprendre de (9)
  - apprendre ___ (7)
  - oublier à (8)

Less Serious Errors
- Non-Agreement with Nouns Having Only Grammatical Gender
  - le voiture (3)
  - les voitures verts (5)
- Verb Errors Attributable to Pronunciation
  - P. et M. vend (10)

performance, and pedagogical focus when correcting learner speech. The hierarchy might be related to the three-step drill sequence suggested by Paulston,[29] who divides activities for oral practice into three types:

1. mechanical drills, in which students manipulate carefully controlled structures, such as in pattern practice;
2. meaningful exercises, in which students respond realistically to controlled questions, such as in picture-cued responses;
3. communicative activities, in which students are allowed total freedom of response and the focus is on the students rather than on the teacher.

The difficulty of these activities is directly related to the amount of control involved. Mechanical drills are generally the easiest and permit the smallest number of errors. Meaningful exercises are next in difficulty,

allowing more varied types of errors. Communicative activities are the most difficult, and often the most frustrating to students, permitting an infinite variety of errors.

The three parts of the general hierarchy fit quite neatly with this three-part model of activity types. In mechanical drills all errors in the hierarchy should be corrected, provided that they are within the pedagogical focus. In more meaningful exercises, both serious and intermediate errors might be corrected. Finally, in communicative activities, only the most serious errors need be corrected. It has been convincingly argued that there should be no error correction during communicative activities, because overcorrection may reduce student motivation and even impede learning.[30] In the case of errors that may have a stigmatizing effect on the learner, however, some form of correction seems desirable. This correction might take one of two forms: either subtle remodeling by the teacher, in situations in which teacher intervention would not disturb the communicative interaction; or follow-up activities, including mechanical drills designed to practice or reteach the structures in which highly bothersome errors were made. This tri-level approach to error correction ensures that all errors are corrected at some level, yet also encourages involvement in communicative activities in which students are given the opportunity for creative language use. Furthermore, it makes the sensitivities of native speakers one of the criteria on which classroom error correction is based, recognizing that a strong negative affective reaction can stigmatize the speaker in the mind of the listener, thus hindering communication.[31]

In addition to suggesting in which circumstances to correct specific errors, the pedagogical hierarchy can help us decide how to correct these errors. Correction procedures can also be divided into three types:

1. rigorous correction, including prompting students to correct themselves, followed by class repetition;
2. peer correction followed by repetition by the student who made the error;
3. teacher remodeling without any repetition.

Rigorous correction would be most appropriate for the most irritating errors, peer correction for the intermediate errors, and teacher remodeling for the less irritating errors. The choice of correction strategy would,

of course, also depend on the type of activity involved and on the proficiency and temperament of the student who made the error.

Finally, teachers should also consider such a hierarchy when evaluating and grading student speech. For errors that are considered very bothersome, teachers should deduct a high number of points, in recognition of the probable stigmatizing effects of the error. Errors considered intermediate in severity would merit moderate deductions. Fewer points would be deducted for the less bothersome errors. Students tend to concentrate on what they need to know in order to get better grades; therefore, if we wish to direct student learning in terms of native sensitivity to error, we must ensure that this hierarchy is reflected in our testing and grading procedures.

Syllabus Design and Teaching Methods

This hierarchy should also be reflected in syllabus design, specifically in the ordering of structural features. For example, verbs that have phonologically irregular forms in which errors can be noticed easily should be presented relatively early and practiced often in order to reduce the number of highly irritating verbal errors. There should also be ample time between the presentation of subject pronouns and the presentation of stressed pronouns, with much practice and verification of the former, in order to avoid confusion that might result in the use of *moi* and *toi* as subject pronouns, found to be quite bothersome to native French speakers.

Methods that allow omission of obligatory structural items, especially of the definite article, should be viewed with caution. For example, the Focus Approach[32] permits students to omit definite articles if they are unsure of gender. If omission of the definite article is restricted to classroom use and leads to better control of gender and definite article forms, this method would still be advantageous. It matters little what interlanguage steps are used in the restricted, classroom setting; what is important is the type of language that students use when they leave the classroom and speak with native speakers in truly communicative settings. If, however, after leaving the classroom, students continue to omit necessary definite articles, the Focus Approach would need revision, since the results of the present research indicate that omission of definite articles might cause native speakers to

stigmatize the speech of our students, thereby hindering communicative interaction.

Conclusion

The pedagogical hierarchy presented here is based on the reactions of adults and *lycée* students in Paris and Nancy to grammatical errors made in the French spoken by an American learner. These reactions may therefore not necessarily generalize to written French or to the French spoken by learners of other nationalities whose accents might suggest different socioeconomic associations. This research shows that affective reaction to error varies according to the age of the judge. It is also possible, of course, that judges from different francophone areas, such as French Canada or African nations, would have different reactions to the grammatical errors presented here. It is likewise inappropriate to assume a similar hierarchy for target languages other than French, although research does indicate that certain basic similarities may be found in Spanish, German, and English.

We can nonetheless consider a variety of language groups for ideas on how to apply research findings to strategies for error correction, to syllabus design, and to selection of methodologies. The evidence presented here indicates that teacher intuition of error severity reflects native sensitivity to error to an encouraging extent. This intuition should be cultivated through knowledge gained in research, so that we might devise a systematic correction procedure that takes into account the many and varied aspects of error severity. The establishment of an error hierarchy is a complex task involving many variables—the student, the teacher, the situation, the error—and several criteria for severity—comprehensibility, competence/performance, affective reaction, pedagogical focus.

Researchers and practitioners showed considerable interest in these areas in the 1970s. In the 1980s, we can look forward to additional research findings and to considerable discussion of their pedagogical implications. In the meantime, we should not hesitate to use the information that is now available to begin to establish priorities for error correction in our classrooms.

Notes

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2. Diane W. Birkbichler, "Communication and Beyond," in *The Language Connection: From the Classroom to the World*, ed. June K. Phillips (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1977), pp. 53-94.
3. Andrew D. Cohen, "Error Correction and the Training of Language Teachers," *Modern Language Journal* 59 (1975), pp. 414-22.
4. Carol Herron, "The Treatment of Errors in Oral Activities: Developing Instructional Strategies," *The French Review* 55 (1981), pp. 6-16.
5. Gerard Ervin, Pre-Conference Workshop for College Teachers of Foreign Languages, Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers Conference, Madison, WI, October 1981.
6. Noam Chomsky, *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (Cambridge: M.I.T. Press, 1965).
7. Cohen.
8. Stig Johansson, "The Identification and Evaluation of Errors in Foreign Languages: A Functional Approach," in *Errata: Papers in Error Analysis*, ed. Jan Svartvik (Lund, Sweden: CWK, Gleerup, 1973), pp. 102-14.
9. Details of the research design and analysis of the data, including measures of reliability and validity and figures of statistical significance, can be found in my dissertation, "Native and Non-Native Reaction to Grammatical Error in French," Indiana University, 1981, and in an article in preparation, "Research Techniques for Measuring Affective Reaction to Foreign Language Learner Error." The intent of the present article is to summarize the findings for use by classroom teachers. This article is a discussion of pedagogical practice rather than of research technique.
10. *Collège d'enseignement secondaire* is the equivalent of middle school in the French educational system. *C.E.S.* students in this study included ages 11 to 16; the most common age was 14.
11. *Lycée* is the French equivalent of our high school. *Lycée* students in this study included ages 15 to 20; the most common age was 16.
12. 'Adult' was defined as anyone who has left the *lycée*. In this study, ages of adults ranged from 20 to 72; the most common age was 24.
13. 'University Instructor' was defined as an instructor at a university who held a master's degree. Most were graduate teaching assistants.
14. 'University Faculty' was defined as an instructor at a university who held or was near completion of a doctor's degree.
15. Linda Gaylord Piazza, "Communicative Effects of Grammatical Errors Made by Americans Learning French," Ed. D. Dissertation, University of Rochester, 1979. For a summary of this research, see her article "French Tolerance for Grammatical Errors Made by Americans," *Modern Language Journal* 64 (1980), pp. 422-7.
16. Joanne Druist, "Grammatical Patterns in the Spoken Spanish of Bilingual Teenagers," paper presented at the Annual Queens College Conference on Bilingualism and Second Language Teaching and Learning, November 1976. ERIC: FD 172 589.
17. Gail Guntermann, "An Investigation of the Frequency, Comprehensibility and Evaluational Effects of Errors in Spanish Made by English-Speaking Learners in El Salvador," Ph.D. Dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1977. For a summary of this research, see her article "A Study of the Frequency and Communicative Effects of Errors in Spanish," *Modern Language Journal* 62 (1978), pp. 249-53.
18. Kenneth Chastain, "Native Speaker Reaction to Instructor-Identified Student Second-Language Errors," *Modern Language Journal* 64 (1980), pp. 210-5.
19. Robert Politzer, "Errors of English Speakers of German as Perceived and Evaluated by German Natives," *Modern Language Journal* 62 (1978), pp. 253-61.
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21. Søren Kolstrop and Jørgen Sand, "Investigation of Frenchman's Reactions to Foreigners' Syntactical and Morphological Errors," Preliminary Report of a Pilot Study Conducted in Grenoble in March 1979 (mimeo).
22. Richard Tucker and Marian Sarofim, "Investigating Linguistic Acceptability with Egyptian EFL Students," *TESOL Quarterly* 13 (1979), pp. 29-39.
23. Sidney Greenbaum, "Language Variation and Acceptability," *TESOL Quarterly* 9 (1975), pp. 165-72.
24. William Labov, *Sociolinguistic Patterns* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1972), p. 65.
25. This possible interpretation was suggested to me by Professor Samuel N. Rosenberg of Indiana University during a discussion of this research.
26. I am currently preparing an article on this aspect, "The Effect of Age and Socioeconomic Status on the Evaluation of Gender Error in Learner French."
27. A good introduction to the concept of 'popular French' (*français populaire*) may be found in Pierre Guiraud, *Le Français populaire* (Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1973). Briefly, popular French is a variety of French typically spoken by working-class Parisians in informal situations; it is often considered to be below the standards of the prescriptive norm.
28. 'Foreigner talk' is a special register often including pidginized features. It is considered a stereotypic imitation by native speakers of the way in which foreigners speak under certain conditions. See Charles Ferguson, "Toward a Characterization of English Foreigner Talk," *Anthropological Linguistics* 17 (1975), pp. 1-14.
29. Christina Bratt Paulston, "Structural Pattern Drills: A Classification," *Foreign Language Annals* 4 (1970), pp. 187-93.
30. Albert Valdman, "Communicative Use of Language and Syllabus Design," *Foreign Language Annals* 11 (1978), pp. 567-78.
31. Cohen.
32. Sally Sieloff Magnan, "Reduction and Error Correction for Communicative Language Use: The Focus Approach," *Modern Language Journal* 63 (1979), pp. 342-9.

ED222067

5 The Effect of Group Size on Students' Opportunity to Learn in the Second-Language Classroom

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There has been considerable discussion in the last decade as to the role of small-group work in the second-language classroom.[1] Proponents have suggested that such a restructuring of teacher-student relationships is essential to maximizing practice time, increasing students' attention or involvement, and reducing tension or inhibitions. In contrast, critics claim that such activities are unproductive, that students do not use the target language, that they use the time to clarify how a transformation is accomplished rather than to practice it, and that, if students do use the target language without direct teacher supervision, their errors are not corrected.[2] To date, however, neither the proponents nor the critics have had substantial success in winning over a large clientele of practitioners. In fact, during this decade of increased interest in such activities, actual analyses have not progressed beyond either a consensual summary of the pros and cons or a list of possible activities to be conducted with smaller groups of students. In sum, a review of the literature shows that, while the proponents are especially well-represented, neither group has substantiated its positions with little more than personal experiences or observations.

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The focus of this paper, then, is on the effect of small-group instruction on several aspects of *students'* classroom experience. Two basic

questions are considered: 1) How do differences in group size affect the overall amount of speech, the amount of student talk and teacher talk and the language used? and 2) To what extent do total engagement and nonengagement as well as their subcategories differ by group size?

Methods

The data reported in this paper were collected in an intensive observational study. While a more detailed description of the study, and the observation instrument itself as well as data on inter-observer reliability are presented in another paper,[3] a brief summary may be useful here. Eight foreign language cooperating teachers were selected and trained in the use of time-sampling observation procedures. They then observed their student teachers an average of eleven times each on randomly selected days over the eight-week observation period, generating a total of 5,288 "snapshots" of teacher-student interaction and resulting in detailed information* on a variety of instructional variables. Marginal reliability coefficients for the twelve variables under consideration in this paper averaged .78.

The Use of Different Group Sizes During Instruction

As shown in Table 1, the amount of time allocated to each of the four group sizes varied considerably, with students spending nearly three-quarters of their time in large-group settings. In contrast, students worked alone about 8 percent of the time, with the remaining 5 percent and 3 percent spent in pair and small-group activities. Second-language instruction, then, was provided primarily to the group as a whole, and,

Table 1*

Amount of time spent in each of four group sizes

Individual	*Pair*	*Small Group* (3 to 8 students)	*Large Group* (9 or more students)
8.2%	5.3%	2.9%	74.8%

*Totals for all group sizes will not equal 100% since approximately 9% of the available time was spent in transition.

while individuals or smaller groups were called upon, activities themselves did not seem to allow for extended amounts of one-on-one or small-group interaction during which the teacher played a supportive or monitoring role.

The Effect of Group Size on the Amount and Type of Speech

As shown in Table 2, the total amount of speech was greater during large-group activities, during which some interaction was recorded approximately 85 percent of the time. It is also interesting that, while the percentage is somewhat lower for pair and small-group activities, it does not fall below 60 percent, indicating that even during these less-directed activities someone was speaking two-thirds of the time. As might be expected, there is considerable "quiet time" during individualized instruction.

Perhaps more striking than the absolute totals, however, is the distribution of this speech between teachers and students across the four group sizes. As shown in Table 2, teachers spoke more than students during individualized and large-group activities, while students were involved orally more than teachers during pair and small-group activities. The magnitude of these differences is clearly represented in the ratio of student-to-teacher speech:

Table 2
The effect of group size on the overall amount and type of speech

Speaker	*Individual*	*Pair*	*Small Group*	*Large Group*
Student Speech	10%	63%	50%	39%
Teacher Speech	16%	8%	13%	46%
Total Speech	26%	71%	64%	85%
Ratio of Student-to-Teacher Language Used	.61	8.44	3.78	.85
Language Used				
Target Language	67%	82%	84%	95%
English	33%	18%	16%	5%
Interaction Type				
Repetitive	16%	12%	20%	37%
Communicative	84%	88%	80%	63%

1. During individualized study time, students spoke about two-thirds as often as teachers (.61).
2. During large-group instruction, students spoke nearly as often as teachers (.85).
3. During small-group instruction, students spoke almost four times as often as teachers (3.78).
4. During pair instruction, students spoke more than eight times as often as teachers (8.44).

As these data indicate, then, pair and small-group settings seem to provide the most efficient settings for language learning when the absolute frequency of oral production is considered. Thus, while the most speech was not observed during pair and small-group activities, it is quite evident that the greatest amount of *student speech* was indeed observed during this type of activity.

In addition to the data on the amount of speech, data were also collected on the type of speech; that is, the language used and the repetitive or communicative nature of the interaction. The percentages of target language spoken by group size are presented in Table 2 and range from .67 (individual work) to .95 (large group). Similarly, the percentages of communicative interaction range from .63 (large groups) to .88 (pairs). As these data show, an increase in the use of the target language appears to be directly related to the use of teacher-directed, large-group activities. In addition, as activities became less teacher-oriented, the frequency of use of the target language declined, stabilizing at approximately 80 percent for oral activities. It is also interesting that students still used the target language at least two-thirds of the time, even in individualized activities when they were working alone. In contrast to this decline in the use of the target language as teacher direction was removed, however, is a striking increase in the communicative nature of students' speech. The data are quite clear in indicating that large groups were used for repetitive forms of drilling rather than personalized choices.

The Effect of Group Size on Student Engagement

As shown in Table 3, group size did have an effect on students' active learning time, or engagement, with engagement being the highest

for large-group activities (87%), slightly lower for individualized and pair activities (80% and 78%), and considerably lower for small-group activities (67%). As might be expected, off-task behavior generally accounted for the largest percentage of nonengaged time, a percentage that increased from approximately 6 percent for large-group and individualized activities to 14 percent for small-group work. It must be noted, however, that off-task behavior—fooling around—did not account for even 50 percent of the total amount of nonengaged time in any group size: clearly, there are high percentages of nonengaged: waiting behavior in all four group sizes, indicating that the activities were not completely effective in keeping all the students at work all the time. Thus, while there are large differences in the overall amounts of nonengaged behavior across the group sizes, the proportion of nonengaged time, as it is distributed within a group size in particular, is relatively stable.

Summary of the Data Base

In summarizing this portion of the paper, then, it is clear that group size has an important effect on students' opportunity to learn in foreign language classrooms. What is more, the data show that none of these four types of instruction is entirely without limitations. Seemingly least effective are the individualized settings, in which the ratio of

Table 3
The effect of group size on student engagement and nonengagement

	Individual	*Pair*	*Small Group*	*Large Group*
Engagement				
Writing	51%	10%	10%	5%
Oral	6%	45%	21%	20%
Listening	10%	19%	32%	59%
Covert	13%	3%	4%	3%
Total Engagement	80%	78%	67%	87%
Nonengagement				
Waiting	10%	8%	12%	4%
Interim	4%	6%	7%	3%
Off-task	6%	9%	14%	6%
Total Nonengagement	19%	23%	32%	13%

student-to-teacher speech was the lowest (.61) and the most English was used (33%). However, the percentages of communicative speech and total engagement were still relatively high (84%, 80%). In contrast are the large-group settings, in which very high engagement (87%) and a strikingly large percentage of the target language spoken (95%) are offset by the largest percentage of teacher-talk (85%), a small ratio of student-to-teacher speech (.46), and the largest amount of repetitive speech (37%). Similarly, while students spoke much more than teachers (ratio = 3.78) and while the target language was used (84%) in communicative ways (80%), small-group instruction was characterized by a very large percentage of nonengaged behavior—students were observed in nonengaged, off-task or nonengaged, waiting activities during fully one-third of the time spent in small-group activities. Perhaps the best balance between the speech and engagement variables, then, is found during pair activities. While only a small number of formal or informal pair activities were observed (see Table 1), the ratio of student-to-teacher speech was the highest (8.44), more than double that observed for small groups. Moreover, high percentages of communicative and target language interactions were observed (88%, 82%), while engagement averaged 78 percent, less than 10 percent lower than that observed for large groups.

As the data show, the context of instruction—the size of the group in which learning occurs—has an effect on the amount and type of learning that actually occur in the classroom. Thus, it is in their potential for maximizing students' opportunities to use the target language in a purposeful and communicative way while minimizing the amount of time spent in nonengaged behaviors that group sizes may be evaluated.

From Theory into Practice

On the basis of these findings, it is clear that the four types of groupings have distinct benefits and limitations and that each is more or less appropriate in accomplishing certain instructional goals. It is curious, however, that there are such large differences in the percentages of time spent in each context, as reported in Table 1. More specifically, it is interesting that pairs, and to a lesser extent, small groups

were not more frequently observed. As these data suggest, teachers may be reluctant to use such activities in their classes for a variety of pragmatic reasons. Yet because our research shows such positive support for the use of varied group sizes, the following paragraphs respond to some of the most common reservations, focusing first on ways to structure activities in which pairs or smaller groups are asked to work without direct and continuous teacher supervision and, second, on a variety of activities and skills that might be developed in such settings.

Formal and Informal Pair Activities

As it is traditionally conceived, work in pairs is a potentially time-consuming activity, especially when one thinks only of lengthy application activities, such as the writing of original dialogues, or, in advanced classes, the preparation of debates or other creative oral assignments. Although the time may very well be worth it, since the opportunity for student talk increases dramatically, such a traditional use of formal pairs may not be appropriate on a daily basis.

In contrast to such highly structured activities, we would like to suggest the use of short, pair interactions which may be integrated into the repetitive, rote-level stages of instruction. During the drill of a dialogue, pattern practice, or phonetics exercise, students may simply be asked to turn to a person sitting next to them and practice the item two or three times. Informal use of small groups might also be developed in question-answer work: After the teacher has asked a question several times, he or she may ask students to repeat the question and turn to a neighbor to ask the question, a technique that is especially effective in the "warm-up" time when familiar questions are often raised. While this takes a very small amount of time, it encourages students to work actively on the language—producing it, listening to it, and correcting each other.

In addition, such informal pairing serves as a learning pause, allows the teacher to provide individualized help, and encourages students to simulate more realistic one-to-one interactions in the language while not allowing them enough time to engage in off-task activities. By varying the seating arrangement or by asking students to work with the student

sitting on the left, right, in front, behind, or diagonally, teachers can easily vary the membership of the informal pairs so that certain groups do not reinforce each others' errors and a positive, work-oriented tension is maintained.

What is more, asking students to work with certain people may meet various pedagogical goals. In a combined class, the teacher may choose to have a fourth-year and fifth-year student work together so that the more advanced student may help the other one. Similarly, one might decide to put students from different parts of the room into pairs or small groups so that they get to know each other and begin to build systems of trust and cooperation, thus taking into account the importance of talking with different people and of hearing different voices as a means of developing listening skills and flexibility.

With students of limited proficiency in English, the pairing of a limited English speaker and a native speaker—an assigned "buddy"—can be particularly effective. This "buddy" could be assigned to work with the nonnative in a particular content area, such as math, or to sit near the student for a week to help out during the entire day's interaction.[4] Specifically, one student a week could be asked to sit next to the nonnative student to reexplain the teacher's directions, to begin worksheets with him or her, or to model examples for in-class work. Similarly, a buddy could be selected from a more advanced class to spend 15-20 minutes a day helping the nonnative speaker, or all the students in the class could be involved in preparing visuals for major points in a reading lesson, a science unit, or a history lesson. This procedure not only checks the learning of all the students but also gives the teacher or buddy extra materials for drilling and reviewing curriculum content. In addition, a "buddy of the week" might call the friend at home to chat, remind him or her of assignments, or go over homework.

In maintaining a high level of efficiency, or on-task-ness, during both formal and informal pairs, several points might be considered. First, limiting the number of students per group to two, or at the most three to four, may help reinforce a feeling of involvement and mutual dependence. In encouraging students to work steadily during these activities, a definite time limit for the activity may act as a motivator. In fact, a teacher may even set out a kitchen timer so that the students themselves become responsible for their progress and develop a sense of self-pacing—valuable training for students, especially at the junior

high age, who need to be trained to complete tasks within assigned time periods. In addition, students will work more steadily if the teacher circulates during these activities, thus keeping students on task by responding to individual questions or problems, by giving suggestions, and by showing interest in the proceedings. By giving grades or at least comments on the progress and achievements of the various groups, and by clearly outlining a definite outcome for the activity, teachers are more likely to encourage students to work with more purpose and focus.

A third set of teaching strategies to be considered when structuring such pair or small-group activities deals with maintaining an appropriate balance between the use of English and the target language. We have noted that students are more likely to use the target language if the teacher primes or prepares them with the necessary vocabulary. It is only logical that students need to review necessary forms, semantic items, and sample sentences before they begin to work more independently. Thus, before putting students into groups to ask each other about what they are going to do during the weekend, the teacher could have the class repeat the question, then elicit possible answers from the group, and finally chorally review these models before the small-group practice. It may also be effective to offer a simple reminder of the need to use the target language, as well as to summarize and demonstrate the expected student behavior during the activity. By giving verbal instructions, acting out how the activity is to be conducted, writing the directions on the board as a reference, or even providing a written worksheet to guide the activity, then asking students to paraphrase the directions and to give an example of how they will carry out the activity *before* they go into groups, the teacher anticipates students' needs and thus avoids unnecessary English as well as nonengaged wait-time.

Thus, we would like to suggest that there are several approaches to work in pairs and small groups and that the use of informal pairs as well as a variety of structuring behaviors may be important in implementing such activities in an effective and efficient way. Specifically, the strategies outlined above focus on making students accountable for the time spent in pair or small-group activities. In addition, they emphasize the role of such activities in developing both repetitive and communicative skill in the target language, while minimizing both the need for, and the time that may be devoted to, speaking English.

Developing Varied Language Skills

In that the professional journals contain several articles a year on small-group activities, and that, as noted in the introduction to this paper, the proponents of small-group work in the foreign language classroom are especially well-represented, there are numerous possibilities available to the teacher who is seeking to implement these activities *and* who can analyze the potential strengths and limitations of such activities in terms of increased student speech and engaged time. Baker's review of the literature makes an excellent starting point for teachers looking for ideas. The annual *ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education*, which summarizes recent research and publications on foreign language teaching for each year, is another useful source.[5] Because of time and space limitations, we will list here just a few small-group activities that we have found successful, organizing them around the major skills to be developed. Obviously, there will be some overlap, as, for example, in "listening," since one student talks while the other listens. Our purpose in this listing is to demonstrate that pair and small-group activities may be organized to meet a wide variety of instructional goals in each of the foreign language skill areas.

Listening skills. Nation suggests a "combining approach."[6] Basically, this is a matching game in which pairs of students are each given a printed sheet containing either pictures or word cues in a numbered sequence. Approximately half the items are the same on both sheets. One student reads aloud the first written item or describes a particular picture after which the partner looks at his or her sheet, listens to the other student, and then must decide if they have a match; that is, whether what the other student has said describes the picture or words on his or her sheet. Nation includes many variations on this technique, incorporating both writing skills and grammar work; however, the main focus in all the possibilities is an emphasis on students' listening to and showing an understanding of their peers' utterances.

Speaking skills. Affective-learning activities, based on the Christensen model,[7] are useful stimuli for speaking interactions. The teacher sets up a situation:

> 1. It is midnight. You have run out of gas in the country. No cars go by. You are alone. You go up to a dark house. You knock no

answer. You slowly open the door. (All of this is done in the target language with appropriate visuals and actions.)

In small groups, students then work on completing a matrix sentence that grows out of the situation:

II. You	feel / are	nervous	*because*	you forgot to fill the tank.
		frightened		your parents expect you home.
		terrified		no one answers the door.
		curious		you are afraid of the dark.
		interested		you wonder who lives here.
		excited		? ? ?
		angry		
		tired		
		? ? ?		

While this is a fairly structured activity, since choices are offered to students, each pair still has the opportunity to make up a wide variety of unique combinations or even create their own sentences. A continuing story line could be created by adding more guide sentences:

III. You hear a sound. Is it a creak? a noise? a moan? a sob?

a. You turn around and see—	b. *Then* you hear—
nothing.	a shriek.
a dog.	a door open.
a bat.	a door shut.
a mouse.	the telephone.
a tall, skinny person.	"Bonjour."
? ? ?	? ? ?

IV. What would you not want to see or hear? Why? What would you prefer to see or hear? Why?

V. Now you feel _____ because _____.

Reading skills. Similar to Rivers' "correct the teacher" technique,[8] rewritten dialogues or narratives could be given to students to read and correct together. In such activities, the teacher inserts false information and students must correct the sentences to conform to the facts of previously studied materials. This technique checks students' comprehension of the lessons and reviews the content in a different way. To guide

students, the teacher might indicate how many incorrect points are included in the passage.

Writing skills. Printed materials can be a useful stimulus for pair or small-group writing activities. For this purpose, Mollica suggests a variety of aids, including crossword puzzles, mazes, scrambled letters, and word-search puzzles, lyrics of songs with deletions that students fill in from listening to a record, and ads for which students fill in attention-getters.[9] We have also found dictations an effective activity during pair work, since students must pronounce correctly and clearly from the copy given out by the teacher so that the partner can produce the correct written version. Exchanging roles allows both students to have a writing experience, as well as one in listening and reading aloud.

Grammar skills. Drawing on ideas from materials that focus on affective involvement of students,[10] the teacher could organize varied grammar practice in small groups. For example, Christensen's situational model, mentioned above, could be used to work on adjective agreement. Jarvis et al. suggest exercises that review the use of an infinitive and nouns with a definite article after verbs of emotion,[11] or an interview format could be used to focus on a grammatical point in a personalized way.

Cultural growth. Culture capsules, written in the target language, could be studied in small groups using follow-up questions, or materials in a mini-drama form[12] could be read aloud in pairs and answers could be formulated for the proposed solutions to the cultural conflict contained in the mini-drama. As a follow up to cultural work, Morain suggests that students analyze and discuss a teacher-made "cultoon," a drawing which represents—in visual, cartoon-like form—the cultural points and differences.[13]

Conclusions

In this paper, we have first presented the findings of an intensive observational study in an attempt to determine the effect of four different group sizes on students' opportunity to learn in foreign language classrooms. Specifically, the number, type, and quality of interactions as well as the level of students' active learning, or engaged, time

were considered. As discussed in Tables 1, 2, and 3, students' opportunity to learn did vary by group size, and, as a result, the group size, or context of instruction, played an important role in the development of certain language skills.

In the second part of the paper, two sets of teaching strategies that might facilitate the use of pairs or small groups are discussed. The first deals with formal and informal pairs, the membership of such groups, and the role of the teacher in maintaining a high level of engagement and use of the target language. The second focuses on classroom activities that teachers might conduct in pair or small-group settings–a section which is abbreviated due to the abundance of materials already available in existing literature.

Overall, the paper was developed so that the two sections are complementary; the first helping to clarify both the strengths and limitations of such groupings; and the second guiding practitioners in their search for appropriate materials and activities. More important, however, it is hoped that the paper will serve as an introduction to a newer line of research in foreign language education which takes as its beginning not a consensual summary of pros and cons, but rather an analysis of why classrooms function as they do and how teachers and students can maximize opportunity to learn in such settings.

Notes

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2. Renee S. Disick, "Developing Communication Skills Through Small Group Techniques," *American Foreign Language Teacher*, vol. 3 (1972), pp. 3-7.
3. Anne G. Nerenz and Constance K. Knop, "A Time-Based Approach to the Study of Teacher Effectiveness" (under review).
4. For a more extensive list of suggestions, see: Marge Feder and Marie Wigman, "Some Suggested Classroom Activities for the Content Teacher with Non-English-Speaking Students in Class," *TESOL Elementary/SIG News* III (1981), pp. 4-12.
5. *ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series* (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company).
6. I.S.P. Nation, "The Combining Arrangement: Some Techniques," *Modern Language Journal* 61 (1977), pp. 89-94.
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8. Wilga Rivers, *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of French* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975), ch. 3.

9. Anthony S. Mollica, "Print and Non-Print Materials: Adapting for Classroom Use," *Building on Experience–Building for Success*, ed. June K. Phillips (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1979), pp. 157-98.
10. See, for example: Clay Benjamin Christensen, "Achieving Language Competence with Affective Learning Activities," *Foreign Language Annals* 10 (1977), pp. 157-67; Gertrude Moskowitz, *Sharing and Caring in the Foreign Language Class: A Sourcebook on Humanistic Techniques* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1978); Virginia Wilson and Beverly Wattenmaker, *Real Communication in Foreign Language* (Upper Jay, NY: Adirondack Mountain Humanistic Education Center, 1973). [Available from ACTFL Materials Center]
11. Gilbert A. Jarvis, Therese Bonin, Donald Corbin, and Diane Birckbichler, *Connaître et se connaître* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976).
12. See, for example: Arley W. Levno, *Rencontres culturelles* (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1977); Barbara Snyder, *Encuentros Culturales* (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1977).
13. Geneße Morain, "The Cultoon," *Canadian Modern Language Review* 35 (1979), pp. 676-90.

ED222068

6
Information Transfer Techniques in ESL/FL Reading and Listening Comprehension

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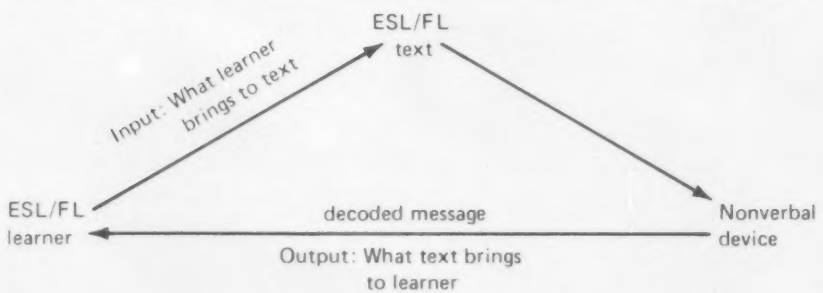
Information transfer (I.T.) is a set of techniques applicable to reading and listening comprehension. Broadly speaking, this objective is achieved by facing the students with a written or spoken text and providing incomplete visual stimuli to be completed with information drawn from the text. The idea is that the learners are helped in understanding the text by means of a nonverbal device such as a diagram, a graph, or a table.[1] The nonverbal device cues the students to certain organizational properties of the text. Information transfer operates something like this: The student brings information, assumptions, opinions, and expectations to the text. Then those items are used in conjunction with nonverbal devices to decode the text and yield its content to the learner [Fig. 1].

Figure 1



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Here is an example from a recently published text.[2] The expression *hemisferio occidental* (Western Hemisphere) is introduced in the reading passage, and its meaning is evaluated in the following multiple choice item [Fig. 2]:

Figure 2

INSTRUCTION: Which letter represents the *hemisferio occidental*?

A.
B.
C.
D.

Notice that here the students retrieve verbal information from the text and decode it by means of the nonverbal device included in the testing item. There has been a transfer of information from the verbal to the graphic medium and back to the verbal medium.

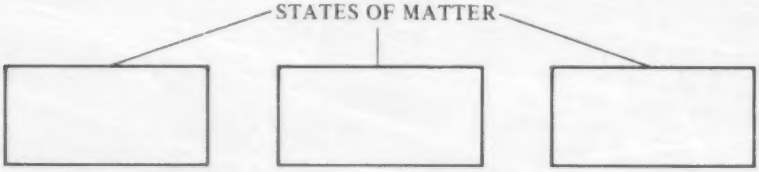
The example above illustrates information transfer at its simplest: The item tested is content vocabulary and the response required is of the multiple-choice type. More complex tasks can be attempted. For example, a group of learners may be given a simple reading passage about matter and its properties. A set of paragraphs describes the three states of matter and the properties of each. The information in these paragraphs is tested by means of this item [Fig. 3].

It is worth pointing out here that the learners are given a minimum of verbal clues inserted in a predominantly visual display that reflects the underlying organization of the information in the text. Despite its apparent sophistication, the device has been informally shown to be effective even with underachievers in foreign languages.[3]

We see then that information transfer allows for work with qualitatively different educational objectives. When simple knowledge is the

Figure 3

A.



B. TABLE 1

State of Matter	*Properties*
1.	a) b) c)
2.	a) b) c) d)
3.	a) b) c) d)

objective, it can provide assistance in familiarizing students with vocabulary. At higher levels, it can assist students in applying specific criteria in the evaluation of a text. In the example that follows, the students have listened to interviews of four persons of similar social status, with two of them being considerably younger than the other two.[4] The learners are asked to listen to the interviews a second time, but on this occasion they are given a set of criteria to evaluate the language of the persons. These criteria include items such as variety of vocabulary, simple or complex sentence usage, repetitiousness and undue hesitation, etc. Then they are asked to evaluate the performance of the four speakers through the device shown in Figure 4.

As suggested in the examples given, information transfer is ideal for testing and helping comprehension of nonliterary discourse. Its validity for literary discourse is somewhat uncertain, but Grellet provides some interesting applications.[5] The extent to which these techniques can really go beyond the informational content to illuminate the specifically aesthetic features of a literary text is still open to question. However,

Figure 4

STUDENTS *(Digna and Germán)*		VOCABULARY	SPOKEN SENTENCE STRUCTURE	LOGIC
	3			
	2			
	1			

ADULTS *(Carmen Gloria and Eliana)*		VOCABULARY	SPOKEN SENTENCE STRUCTURE	LOGIC
	3			
	2			
	1			

we should note that much modern literary criticism has found that diagrams, tables, and graphs are extremely useful in clarifying various aspects of plot, symbols, and interpersonal relations in drama and fiction.

All the examples given previously work from the verbal (text) via the visual (graphic display) and back to the verbal (reading and listening comprehension). Examples can also be found in which information transfer works the other way around; i.e., from visual to verbal. In this last illustration, the students are given a graph and are required to demonstrate their comprehension by completing the gaps in a brief text with the information from the graph [Fig. 5].[6] The material appended to the present paper gives further illustration of how a series of I.T. devices can be used to test and teach the main concepts and ideas in a written text.

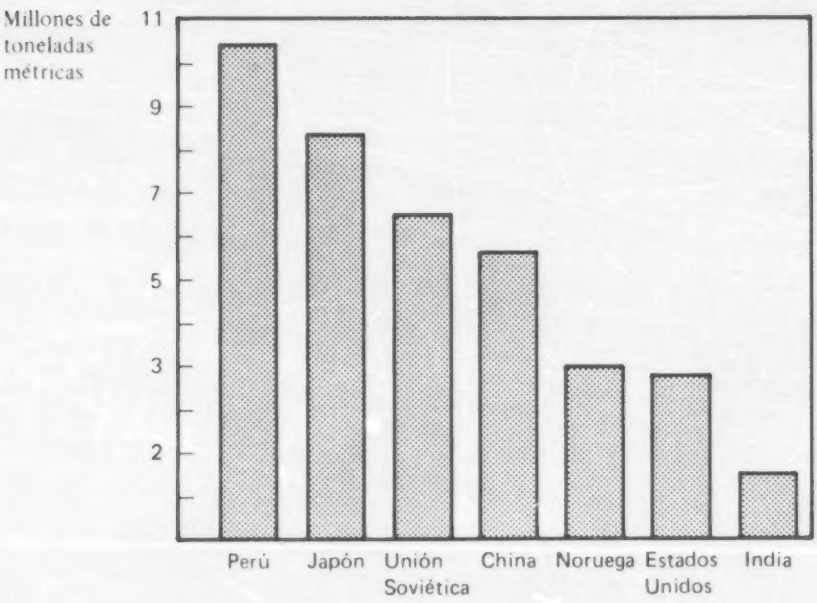
Other types of information transfer devices are possible: ordering a sequence of pictures, comparing text and pictures, completing documents, and giving directions on a map.[7]

Figure 5

Introductory Exercise B

Study this graph carefully and fill in the blanks below.

Gráfico I
Pesca promedio 1966–70



El gráfico ilustra el _____ de pesca entre los años _____ y _____. La nación europea con mayor actividad pesquera es _____ con un promedio de _____ _____ de toneladas. El segundo país europeo en importancia es _____ (_____ _____ de toneladas). Con un promedio aproximado de _____ _____ de toneladas, _____ es la nación pesquera más importante de las Américas y del mundo. _____ ocupa el segundo lugar en el mundo (aproximadamente 9.000.000 de toneladas). En Asia, el tercer lugar corresponde a _____.

Having explained the use of information transfer techniques, it is now time to look at their justification. This falls under two main headings: linguistic and pedagogic.

Information transfer devices focus on the function of language in a given text. We tend to think of language in terms of sounds, letters, words, sentences, paragraphs, and so on. Of course there is more to language than that. When we speak or write, we not only generate sounds, letters, sentences, etc.; we also try to describe, explain, apologize, convince, order, promise, and threaten. In a reading passage, the language may be used to define, exemplify, describe, explain, and classify. Information transfer exercises take advantage of this property of language to draw the attention of the students to the logical organization of the text, to the ways in which the writer has deployed information and to how language reflects this organization. I.T. activities require students to concentrate on what words, sentences, and other language units *do* in a given text.

We are thus dealing with a newer approach to testing reading comprehension which also acts as a valuable *teaching* tool. At this point, evidence from the psychology of learning comes in to provide additional support for the approach we are discussing. Gagné has drawn attention to the function of tables, graphs, and diagrams as elements that influence the learning of factual information.[8] Tabular and similar types of graphic presentation of data "may be expected to provide organizing factors which aid the storage and retrieval of factual information." Moreover, diagrams and graphs offer the additional advantage that they can be recalled as visual images.

If we extend these conclusions from general learning theory to foreign language teaching, we can easily see that I.T. exercises are powerful teaching aids in that they help the learners to see the organization of information in a written text, allowing them to store and retrieve the information along with the language. Cognitive psychologists and language teachers such as Rivers tell us that it is important to establish a cognitive framework of references in order to facilitate what Rivers calls "skill-getting."[9]

In summary, I.T. exercises are entirely justified on both linguistic and pedagogical counts. They are firmly rooted in the organizational nature of the written text and on the hierarchical structure of learning.

However, despite their novelty, we must remember that devices are a supplement to, not a substitute for, proven reading comprehension exercises, from multiple-choice and direct questions to the cloze technique and its various modifications. The tried exercise types are in fact enriched and extended by the addition of information transfer.

Appendix I
Matter

All our environment is formed by matter. Matter is anything that occupies space. The three states of matter are solid, liquid, and gaseous.

A solid has a definite shape and volume, and is highly resistant to compression. It usually presents a number of faces. A liquid does not present a definite shape; it assumes the shape of the container that holds it. It has volume. It is also highly resistant to compression and it presents only one surface, on the upper part of its volume. A gas also has the shape of the container that holds it but it has no free surfaces. A gas can expand until it completely fills its container.

Matter does not always remain in the same state. The addition or subtraction of heat causes changes in the state of a body. For example, subtracting heat from a liquid results in ice (solid state). Conversely, a liquid (water) becomes a gas when we add heat. Carbon dioxide (CO_2), a gas, can become a liquid and then a solid when it is cooled and compressed.

Matter has general and specific properties. There are five general properties. First, we have weight, caused by the gravitational force of our planet, the Earth. Second, there is mass: each object or body has a definite quantity of matter. Next comes volume: the mass of an object occupies space. Impenetrability is a fourth property: two bodies cannot occupy the same space simultaneously. Finally, we must mention inertia, the property of masses at rest to continue at rest, or masses in motion to continue in motion unless there are external forces that influence them.

The general qualities of matter demonstrate the similarities between the different bodies or objects. On the other hand, the specific properties indicate the manner in which bodies differ. One of them is

ductibility, the property of bodies that can be stretched into wires with very small diameters. This is one of the characteristics of copper (Cu). Another specific property is strength or resistance of solids to breaking forces. A third property is elasticity or the capacity of a body to recover its original shape when the deforming force stops.

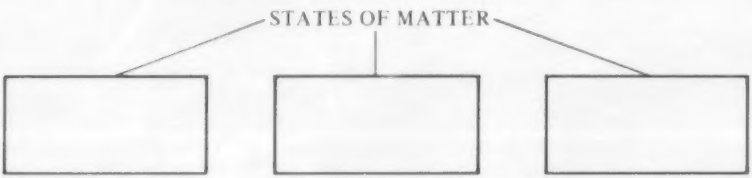
A final observation about the constitution of matter. Two objects that are very different in appearance are in fact constituted by very small, invisible particles. These particles (molecules) are the smallest units that constitute a body. Each molecule has the properties characteristic of a body or substance. For example, there are molecules of water, salt, sugar, alcohol, nitric acid, and many others.

(Adapted from L. T. Masson, *General Science Made Easy*. New York: Editors Press Service, 1964).

Appendix II
Comprehension

Complete these diagrams and tables with information from the text.

A. **Figure 1**



B. TABLE 1

State of Matter	*Properties*
1.	a) b) c)
2.	a) b) c) d)
3.	a) b) c) d)

C. TABLE 2

Initial State	*Temperature (+ add) (− subtract)*	*Intermediate State*	*Temp.*	*Final State*
Solid	+ →	----------	+ →	------
Gas	− →	----------	− →	------
Liquid	+ →	----------	− →	------

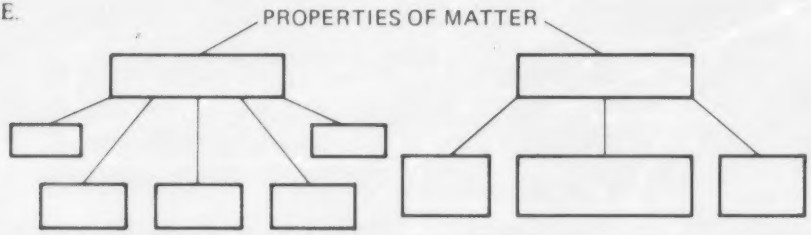
D. TABLE 3

EXAMPLES

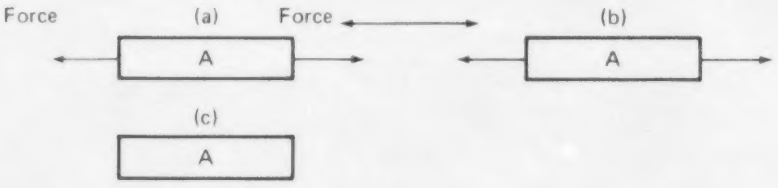
Substance	Initial State	Temperature (+ add) (− subtract)	Interm. State	Temp.	Final State
1. CO_2					
2.					
3.					

Figure 2

E.



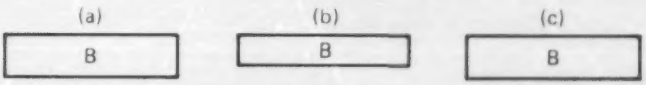
F. Look at this diagram and determine which property is illustrated.



PROPERTY .....

G. Look at this diagram and determine which property is illustrated.

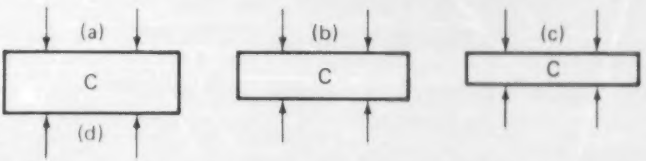
Figure 4



PROPERTY .....

H. Now look at this diagram and determine the property illustrated.

Figure 5



Wire C

PROPERTY .....

Notes

1. Henry G. Widdowson, "EST in Theory and Practice," *English for Academic Study with Special Reference to Science and Technology* (London: The British Council, an ETIC Occasional Paper, 1975).
2. William Flint-Smith, *Noticiario* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1981).
3. Guillermo Latorre, "EST in the Secondary School," *EST/ESP Chile*, 6.
4. Alan Garfinkel and Guillermo Latorre, *Trabajo y Vida* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, in press).
5. Françoise Grellet, *Developing Reading Skills: A Practical Guide to Reading Comprehension Exercise* (London: Cambridge University Press, 1981), pp. 164-165.
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7. Grellet, pp. 164-165.
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9. Wilga Rivers, "Talking off the Tops of Their Heads," *Speaking of Many Tongues* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1976), p. 23.

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7
Commercial Spanish at Eastern Michigan University

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National attention has begun to focus recently on the negative effects that our monolingualism and cultural isolation have had on our influence in world affairs, on our economic security, and on world peace. Recent events have made us painfully aware of our dependence on the goodwill and help of other members of the world community. Our economic vulnerability has brought a new realization, publicized most notably by the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies, that our national security demands substantial new efforts on our part to communicate with foreign peoples in their own languages in order to understand their cultures and values, to explain our concerns, and to resolve mutual problems. If we are to continue to influence the course of world events and to take a significant place in the global community, we must address our fellow nations as equals, which means dealing with them on their own terms, respecting their own value systems, and using their languages rather than expecting them to use English. Our traditionally arrogant and imperialistic approach to world affairs must yield to one of understanding, empathy, and mutual respect.

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Unfortunately, ours is a country that has traditionally ignored the existence of foreign language minorities within its borders and has failed to recognize the value of its bilingual citizens as a vital national resource. Faced with a complex new world situation in which international communications have become increasingly common, inexpensive, and necessary, however, we must abandon the melting-pot mentality of the past and embrace our multicultural and multilingual heritage, protecting, promoting, and utilizing this rich diversity to help solve pressing national and international problems. Specifically, in order to compete

successfully in the world marketplace, we must make a special effort to promote foreign language competence and cultural sensitivity among our business representatives, the people who establish and maintain commercial contacts on our behalf with other cultures and peoples of the world. Our ethnic and linguistic minorities can be tapped to help fill the need for bilingual professionals in our commercial establishment.

In an attempt to meet the new challenges of our increasingly complicated and interdependent world community, new programs combining the study of foreign languages and business are being created at colleges and universities across the nation. Three years ago, we at Eastern Michigan University became one of the first universities to initiate such a program at the undergraduate level. Our highly successful B.A. and M.A. Language and International Trade Programs in French, German, and Spanish now have a combined enrollment of more than 200 majors. These programs have three basic components: a business area, a language and international studies area, and a cooperative-education job placement experience. On the undergraduate level, each student must complete courses in microeconomics and macroeconomics, international business and marketing, geography, history, and political science. In addition to these basic requirements in the business and international areas, each student must complete approximately 24 semester hours of specialized courses in some operational area of business administration. The total for the business area comes to more than 40 semester hours for most students. In the language area, each student must complete a minimum of 18 hours of foreign language courses, including at least six semester hours of third-year commercial Spanish. Most incoming students end up taking closer to 30 hours of foreign language training, for two reasons: first, their low entrance proficiency in Spanish requires that they complete several prerequisites prior to qualifying for the third-year specialized courses; and second, most students who complete the third-year required courses prior to their final year continue with the senior-level business-Spanish courses or other language courses in order to maintain and improve their skills. Finally, all students must complete, prior to graduation, a cooperative-education work experience lasting a minimum of four months. The graduate students must fulfill requirements similar to those explained here for the B.A. students,

but on a more advanced level. In addition to the undergraduate and graduate programs in Language and International Trade, Eastern Michigan University also offers a major and a minor in Business Spanish, which differ from the Language and International Trade major and minor in that they require no business area courses at all. Rather, the Business Spanish major includes expanded requirements for business language, culture, and literature.

Three components of the commercial Spanish offerings at Eastern Michigan are of special significance and will be described in detail: the business Spanish sequence of courses and their contents, the examinations for the Certificate and the Diploma in Commercial Spanish from the Madrid Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and the Cooperative Education Exchange Program in Spain and Mexico.

The Commercial Spanish Courses and Their Contents

Students at Eastern Michigan University whose Spanish proficiency is below the third year of college level are expected to take regular Spanish courses to meet prerequisite entrance requirements for the commercial Spanish courses, which begin at the junior level. We offer a six-course sequence, two three-hour courses each on the junior, senior, and graduate levels:

SPN 361 Spanish for International Trade I
SPN 362 Spanish for International Trade II
SPN 446 Business Spanish
SPN 447 Business Spanish
SPN 646 Spanish for Business Practices
SPN 647 Spanish for Business Practices

These courses must be taken in order, each one being the prerequisite for the next. All have basically the same major components: commercial correspondence and documents, Spanish articles on business-related topics, and a textbook covering vocabulary on a wide variety of operational areas.

In each course, students must both translate business letters from Spanish to English and compose letters in Spanish for a wide variety of commercial purposes. In addition, students examine and discuss many

other commercial documents, such as business contracts, stocks, checks, bank drafts, rental contracts, and real estate sales agreements, accounting books, promissory notes, powers of attorney, telegrams, invoices, receipts, bills of lading and other import-export documents, insurance policies, etc.

The problems of the academic community charged with the task of developing and implementing courses of this type are enormous, even without the current trend to reduce governmental financial support to academia. Most of us foreign language teachers have doctorates from traditional programs in literature or linguistics, which provide no background in commercial Spanish or Hispanic business practices. As professors, we are therefore faced with the prospect of a major "retooling," often in our "spare" time as we teach full academic loads at institutions that do not provide adequate support for faculty development. We must determine what linguistic skills and knowledge are pertinent to the present and future job opportunities for bilingual people in international companies, and we must learn and teach the lexical and cultural contents of those business-related areas. The time-consuming development and implementation of appropriate courses and adequate testing procedures to measure their success are basic responsibilities. Furthermore, the successful development of these programs depends on our ability to communicate with each other, to publish descriptions of our activities, courses, and curricula, and to hold conferences where we can share our ideas and discuss our problems.

One of the greatest obstacles to the development of our commercial Spanish program has been the lack of adequate textbooks specifically designed to teach business Spanish and Hispanic business practices to students at U.S. colleges and universities, with appropriate exercises to facilitate the assimilation of this large and alien area of vocabulary. As time progresses, many of us will develop and publish our own materials and books to relieve this situation. In the meantime, I have compiled a bibliography listing publications useful in the field of commercial Spanish. As I scoured publishers' and distributors' catalogues, my emphasis was on identifying books readily available in the United States, so that this bibliography can serve the immediate and practical needs of new programs in commercial Spanish at colleges and universities across the nation. To facilitate the ordering of items by libraries, teachers, students, and professionals, I include an appendix giving names,

addresses, and phone numbers for most domestic and foreign publishers and distributors represented among the 550 titles in the collection. It is my hope that this *Bibliography of Books in Spanish for International Trade*, to be published soon by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, will provide a convenient starting point for the implementation of our national mandate to provide educational training in this new area of higher education. It constitutes what may be considered a basic set of library holdings in Spanish for international business, forming the minimum resources necessary at any school with a serious commercial-Spanish curriculum. It provides teachers with a list of readily available books to use in their own continuing education and for possible adoption for use in courses. It serves the student and bilingual professional who need a personal library in their area of concentration, by providing lists of books on specialized aspects of the business world.

In order to present the most elementary aspects of business letter writing in the first semester of commercial Spanish at EMU (SPN 361), we use Mary H. Jackson's *Manual de correspondencia española* (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1978). For the second semester course (SPN 362), we use the more extensive *Bilingual Guide to Business and Professional Correspondence* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1970) by Joseph Harvard and I.F. Ariza. This first area of each course, commercial correspondence and documents, is the area that has received the most attention from publishers, and there are many books available that deal with this topic. In addition, commercial correspondence is often a part of other books, such as the two used as textbooks at EMU discussed below, which provide important additional examples of commercial documents other than letters.

For the first-semester course (SPN 361), the Spanish adaptation of *General Business* (BeBrun, et al) by Carmen I. Rodríguez de Roque and Margarita Páez de Abreu provides initial exposure to vocabulary from a representative sample of operational areas: economics, consumer interests, banking, insurance, business communications, business organization and management, labor and governmental relations with business, as well as job hunting. This introduction is followed in the second semester by one of very few textbooks aimed specifically at English-speakers who want to learn commercial-Spanish vocabulary and Hispanic business practices: Nelly Santos, *Español comercial* (New

York: Harper & Row, 1981). This pioneering book, though marred by frequent printing errors and careless proofreading, is useful in providing numerous readings in twelve chapters, each dealing with a separate business area: administration and management, banking, real estate, accounting, credit and finance, business law, economics, statistics, data processing and computers, secretarial and office management, marketing, sales and transportation, and insurance. For each chapter, Santos provides a second section with sample documents and related correspondence, making the book a rich source for familiarizing students with a wide variety of such materials. Exercises help students assimilate the business vocabulary.

The third component of each of our courses is the reading of numerous articles published in foreign periodicals, such as *Excélsior*, *Unomásuno*, and *Hispanoamericano* from Mexico, *El Nacional* and *Resumen* from Venezuela, and the *ABC Madrid* from Spain, covering a wide variety of business-related topics. Each student is required to write a summary, in Spanish, of the information given in the article or the attitudes expressed in it, as if he or she were asked by a company to keep track of business developments in foreign countries. The summary report is presented to the class as an oral report, and a typed copy is submitted to the teacher. The student, in collaboration with the teacher, must make up logical questions, also in Spanish, that cover the main points of the article. In addition, the students must choose important commercial-Spanish terms from the article and provide accurate definitions in Spanish for them. These materials—the article, the questions, and the vocabulary—must be copied and distributed to all class members one week prior to the date of the oral report. The questions are answered in class after the report is given and the article is discussed.

In the past three years, this last component has been one of the most successful in providing exposure for the students to the commercial-Spanish lexicon in a native, unadulterated context. Being entirely in Spanish with no reference to English, it encourages students to build associations among commercial and noncommercial Spanish words and expressions. It encourages students to use a Spanish-to-Spanish dictionary—as opposed to an English-to-Spanish one—and provides practice in manipulating the new lexical items. Because of the great success of this procedure, I am now writing a *Graded Business-Spanish Reader* for use

in my classes. It is an anthology of articles, accompanied by a number of exercises.

This reader will contain about 20 articles, in order of difficulty or length. The text of each article, with important or difficult terms glossed in the margins, is accompanied by a number of exercises providing a guide to the comprehension of its contents as well as further practice with its business-Spanish vocabulary. Since developing extensive familiarity and fluency with the commercial Spanish lexicon is the main purpose, most of these exercises—and the marginal glosses—make no references to English. They require instead the frequent use of a Spanish-to-Spanish dictionary and focus attention on the intricate interrelationships among the terms and expressions of each article's commercial subject matter. Present plans call for the following types of exercises for each article:

1. The *Cuestionario* is a list of questions, in Spanish, on the article's contents. Answering these questions using complete Spanish sentences contributes to the overall understanding of the main points and many details of the article's contents and offers practice in manipulating the article's business-Spanish vocabulary.
2. The exercise of matching selected business-Spanish terms with their Spanish definitions, which define the specialized items using simpler, everyday words, helps develop the student's association of these terms with other related vocabulary, building on the student's previous knowledge by tying the new lexical areas to ones previously learned.
3. The exercises that require the matching of selected vocabulary items with Spanish synonyms and antonyms demonstrate the existence of related commercial-Spanish terms not found in the article itself, and also increase the student's awareness of associations among such terms in Spanish.
4. The exercise in cognates demonstrates that a large number of such words exists and reminds the student of the patterns that each language uses to form different parts of speech.
5. In addition to demonstrating the existence of additional forms for words found in the article, a word-family exercise develops familiarity with the systematic patterns that exist in Spanish for the formation of various words from one root.

6. By requiring him or her to fill in the blanks in Spanish sentences with the appropriate words to make logical sense, the final exercise tests the student's assimilation of the meanings and uses of selected vocabulary items from the article. This exercise might be included in the Teacher's Manual as a sample test for each article.

The Madrid Chamber of Commerce and Industry Exams

Several years ago, the Cámara Oficial de Comercio e Industria de Madrid, in cooperation with the Escuela Oficial de Idiomas de Madrid, developed examinations in commercial Spanish for foreigners, on two different levels. The basic-level examination leads to a title they call the Certificado de Español Comercial Básico, while successful candidates for the advanced-level tests receive the Diploma de Español Comercial. In the spring of 1981, Eastern Michigan University became the exclusive testing center for these exams for a five-state region of the Midwest, including Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio. Students wishing to qualify for either of the degrees awarded by the Madrid Chamber of Commerce and Industry may register through the Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies of Eastern Michigan University and present themselves early in May of each year on the EMU campus. Each test consists of a written part, sent from Madrid and returned there for grading, and an oral part, created and graded by the faculty of Eastern Michigan University. A representative of the Madrid Chamber of Commerce and Industry will be present each year during the administration of the examinations.

The basic level examination consists of a twenty-five-minute oral test and a written test lasting an hour and a half. During the oral part, the candidate must discuss for ten minutes some topic related to current Spanish economics or industrial development with a panel of professors. The student may choose and prepare this topic ahead of time. In addition, the panel will spend 15 additional minutes questioning the candidate orally on the administrative organization of businesses and on commercial-Spanish terminology. The written exam consists of three parts. The first is a twenty-minute dictation of a commercial text. Second, the student is given 30 minutes to compose a Spanish business

letter on a specific topic. Finally, the student has 40 minutes to answer ten questions on topics relating to various aspects of business administration, from a list provided by the Chamber of Commerce in advance. The topics include, among others, the following: business organization, management, marketing, accounting, billing, commercial correspondence, and administrative services.

The advanced-level examination also consists of two parts: a thirty-five-minute oral test and a written test lasting one hour and forty-five minutes. During the oral part the candidate for the Diploma must converse for 15 minutes with the panel on a commercial topic of current interest in the Hispanic business world which will be selected by the professors. In addition, the candidate is given a business reading that must be summarized briefly in oral form on the spot. Twenty minutes are given for this exercise. The written test has three parts. The candidate is given 30 minutes to read an article on a business-related topic and to write a summary of its main points which is no more than one fourth the length of the original. Next, the candidate must compose a commercial document or letter on a given topic in 30 minutes. Finally, the candidate must answer ten questions on commercial law and the Spanish economy (45 minutes).

EMU's Cooperative-Education Exchange Program

The final major component of the commercial-Spanish curriculum at EMU which I will discuss is our placement of students, prior to graduation and as a requirement for completion of their studies, in full-time jobs for a minimum of four months. Some placements last up to the maximum of one year, and students often make contacts during this cooperative-education experience which lead to permanent employment after graduation. The jobs must be related to business administration rather than merely clerical or production-line positions. One purpose of this requirement is to give on-the-job experience in international business to the students, so placements involving international aspects of business are preferred. It is hoped, also, that the job involves use of Spanish. The students must receive a salary from the firm that employs them which is sufficient for them to live comfortably wherever they are placed. Many students fulfill this obligation through jobs in the

United States. The best of our students may qualify, however, for placement in Mexico, Spain, Argentina, or some other Spanish-speaking country. We are developing cooperative agreements with foreign universities and business schools, whereby they will place our students and oversee and evaluate their work experience and we, on our part, will do the same for foreign students of theirs who want experience working in the U.S.A. Solutions for visa and work-permit problems are facilitated because the program is an exchange, so that for every job taken by one of our students, a foreign national is hired here. This component of the commercial-Spanish program, implemented on a trial basis in Buenos Aires (Argentina) and Cuernavaca (Mexico) last year and scheduled for implementation in Madrid this spring, is not yet firmly in place. However, similar exchange components for commercial French and commercial German have been very successful over the past two years, and we are expecting to develop trilateral exchanges for multilingual students in the future. We believe that these cooperative work experiences are very valuable for the students involved, and that the exchange of ideas and business training thus obtained serves to promote international understanding and cooperation.

Conclusion: The Future of Commercial Spanish

We at Eastern Michigan University are convinced that post-Viet Nam era international events, as well as the growing political visibility of our Hispanic population during the 1980s, will make it impossible for our leaders to continue to ignore the urgency of foreign language instruction to many aspects of our national and international well-being. The future will demonstrate that programs combining Spanish, business, and international studies are part of a major new direction in education in the United States. A cursory examination of job announcements in the *Wall Street Journal* or the Sunday *New York Times* confirms that there is a significant job market for bilingual people trained in business and business professionals trained in foreign languages. This present need is growing rapidly, and results of surveys we have made of international firms in the U.S.A. indicate rapid increases in such employment opportunities in the near future.

As professional foreign language educators, there are a number of pressing challenges we have to face now. We must develop programs to train our business specialists in commercial Spanish and Hispanic business practices. We must develop teaching materials and textbooks to aid in this process, as well as proficiency examinations to measure our success. We must develop corporate funding and seek closer cooperation between our educational institutions and our business establishment, which is vital to the success of these efforts aimed at the national best interests and the future peace and stability of the world community. As we attempt to set up the mechanisms needed to meet these challenges, it is essential that we hold conferences at which we can meet and exchange ideas and make plans for the future. Such conferences should include presentations on various aspects of the business-Spanish curriculum, including the following:

- Rationale for programs in foreign languages for business.
- Funding (private and governmental) for programs of this type.
- Existing or planned B.A. and M.A. programs in business Spanish, degree requirements, course descriptions, and their relationship to the traditional Spanish curriculum.
- Textbooks and materials for teaching commercial-Spanish courses.
- Examinations for the Certificado and the Diploma de Español Comercial, awarded by the Madrid Chamber of Commerce (available at EMU).
- Proficiency examinations for students in business-Spanish programs.
- Cooperative-education job placements in businesses in Spanish-speaking countries.
- Present and future employment opportunities in international companies with bilingual requirements.
- Strategies for promoting the study of business Spanish, the development of commercial-Spanish programs, and professional communication among interested teachers.

It is my sincere hope that this exchange of ideas, as well as that afforded by our presentations at the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, will contribute significantly to the development of foreign language instruction and multilingualism in the United States.

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8
The Interdisciplinary Mini-Course:

Instructional Development for Language Classes

Wynona H. Wilkins and Herbert H. Boswau
University of North Dakota-Fargo

Many college students today believe that if they are to survive in the present economic climate after graduation, they must choose a career track early and specialize in a fairly narrow field of knowledge. They often have little opportunity to sample offerings in other disciplines, unless required for the degree, with the result that they can be embarrassingly ill-informed on any subject except the immediate field of specialization.

At first glance, it might seem that foreign language students would escape these intellectual blinders because of the "global" approach and the emphasis on cultural content in FL courses of study. But all too often in the study of a literary work, teachers find that quotations or allusions to subjects that ought to be a part of the mental furnishings of an educated person bring only blank looks, whether they refer to music, art, historical events, or scientific and philosophical ideas.

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In an attempt to fill in some of these cultural gaps the University of North Dakota initiated mini-courses—one-semester-credit courses given for two hours one day a week over a period of eight weeks, usually late in the afternoon. These offerings include a number of topics of general appeal that draw students from all over the University and often from the community at large. Some are cross-listed with other departments—history/foreign languages, history/fine arts/philosophy, English/foreign languages—and may make use of teaching resources from several departments. The cross-listed ones, of course, are taught in English and carry either elective or humanities credit.

Foreign language students may obtain additional major or minor credit by supplementary readings in the language and writing a paper on an approved topic, or by completing an independent study project and presenting an oral or written report on it.

Two of these courses—"Joan of Arc" and "German Heritage in America"—have proved so successful that we can repeat them every second or third semester with good enrollments. The first deals with a personality in a limited time/space context; the other covers a broad socioeconomic and cultural spectrum over several centuries. We shall discuss both in some detail, showing how the mini-course can be adapted to different kinds of subject matter and resources.

Joan of Arc

If you were asked to name the ten most important personalities of the last 2,000 years, you would probably include Joan of Arc on your list. Even though she came out of nowhere five and a half centuries ago and flashed across the world stage for only a little more than two years, her brief life and meteoric career have left people wondering ever since. Thousands of books have been written about her: It is estimated that there were 500 before 1540, 2,500 by 1889, and more than 12,000 by 1920, when she was canonized. Since then, millions of words have appeared in print about her, and there is no end to the attempts to solve the enigma of her origins, character, and inspiration.

The study of Joan is especially suited to an interdisciplinary mini-course because of the many facets involved:

1. **History**. Who was she? Was she really the simple country girl of legend or, as some believe, the illegitimate daughter of Queen Isabeau, and therefore half-sister to the Dauphin? Was she an *exaltée*, or part of a political time bomb set years in advance of events? What were her military talents, if any? Was she the "first Protestant," a women's "libber," a "peasant revolutionary," or a French nationalist martyr, as various writers have characterized her? Did she die on the pyre in the market square at Rouen, or was she spirited away and another burned in her place? If she was not a martyr, what happened to her?
2. **Literature**. Some of the world's greatest dramatists and novelists have found her a fascinating subject.

3. **Music.** Operas, oratorios, and even musical comedies celebrate her life, with librettos drawn from plays or written specially for the work.
4. **Cinema and theater.** There is a whole library of films about Joan, and every serious actress hopes to play her at least once in her stage or screen career.
5. **Visual Arts.** Although no contemporary portrait of Joan exists, artists over the centuries have never ceased painting her and making statues to represent her.
6. **Theology and psychology.** Were her visions imaginary, the result of illness, or, as she insisted, visits from the angels? Did she suffer, as some modern historians believe, from hysteria, anorexia, epilepsy, tuberculosis, or some other nervous disorder? Were her miracles really miraculous? Was she a witch? If so, what were the evidences of witchcraft? Why did it take five centuries for the Church to make her a saint?

With such a wealth of topics and only sixteen contact-hours in which to consider them, the two-hour weekly period must be carefully planned. Here is the way we do it.

At the beginning of the first meeting, the teacher reads several short versions of the story from history texts, children's books, and other simple accounts, pointing out discrepancies and raising questions about probability, motivation, and the like. Students receive a selected, annotated bibliography that calls attention to the viewpoint and prejudices of the writers and questions the accuracy of their sources. Lectures throughout the course are based on *Saint Joan of Arc* by V. Sackville-West (London: Michael Joseph, Ltd., 1936; Quartet Books, Ltd., 1973).

The second period begins with a 35-minute slide presentation of places and people associated with the story. The lecture covers the various theories about Joan's birth, the social and economic status of her family, variations in dates and accounts, effects of the Hundred Years' War, Joan's visions, and the beginning of her mission.

The third lecture centers on the political and economic conditions in France, the Dauphin's lineage and character, his first meeting with Joan, the Battle of Orléans, and the coronation. A ten-minute slide presentation shows scenes of medieval warfare. Discussion of Schiller's

Maid of Orléans focuses on literary style (in translation) and on his historical inaccuracies. If possible, we have a professor from the German department discuss Schiller's dramas and the *Maid* in particular. Students hear recorded excerpts from Verdi's *Giovanna d'Arco* (Angel SCL-3791) and Tchaikovsky's *Maid of Orléans* (Angel-Melodiya SR-40156), both based on the Schiller play.

Week IV begins with a 20-minute identification quiz on people and places. The lecture covers the trial, and for dramatic effect we hear the "Trial by the Beasts" from Honegger's oratorio, *Joan at the Stake* (CBS-32-21-0004). Students requesting French credit must listen to and comment on the French version, *Jeanne d'Arc au Bûcher* (Col. SL-178).

The fifth lecture is on *Saint Joan* by George Bernard Shaw. The class hears a recording of the trial scene and, if time permits, the Epilogue (Argo RG-470-2).

In the sixth week, we finish *Saint Joan* and begin Anouilh's *The Lark* (students wishing French credit read *l'Alouette*). We sum up the historical events, the pros and cons of the witchcraft accusation, miracles, and sainthood. When possible, we invite a member of the Religious Studies department to discuss the process of canonization.

In the seventh session, we finish *The Lark*. Discussion centers on the films about Joan and on the actresses who have played her on stage and screen. If possible, we try to have the University's film series include one of these films within the eight-week class period.

In the final week, there is a general discussion on questions raised during the course. What opinions (if any) do students have as to what happened? The last hour is devoted to the final exam, made up of multiple-choice and matching questions, with two short essay questions; one asking the student's reaction to the plays read, the other on his or her judgment on what really happened in 1429-31.

The vast amount of published material about Joan makes it relatively easy to find books and articles on every aspect of her life and career. The bibliography of the course is merely representative of works in print and concentrates on those most readily available. Hundreds of articles are listed in the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* over the years, some of which could be added to the list.

For a number of years we used as a textbook an excellent compilation of historical documents and plays: *Joan of Arc: Fact, Legend, and Literature* by Wilfred T. Jewkes and Jerome B. Landfield (Harcourt

Brace & World, Inc., 1954), which included the three required plays in English. Unfortunately, this book has been out of print for several years. Our choice for a single historical text is the Sackville-West, but it too is very elusive. Published first in 1936 and reissued in paperback in 1973, it is again out of print. We therefore adopted a workmanlike but dull study with documents, *Joan of Arc*, by Régine Pernoud (Stein and Day, 1969, translated from the French. French majors read the original, *Jeanne d'Arc*, Le Temps Qui Court edition, 1959). Of the required plays, only Shaw's *Saint Joan* (Penguin Books) is easily obtained. We place copies of the others on reserve at the University library and hope for the best.

Class participation varies with enrollment size. We had fourteen the first time we taught the course, a number which allowed for assignment of individual topics for reading and discussion. In later years we reached a high of 150, and although enrollment has tapered off, we usually have between 60 and 80 in the class. Individual discussion assignments are impossible with such numbers, but students frequently raise questions and provoke lively arguments in the class.

Much of the preparation for such a course depends on the teacher: How much information does he or she have on a given subject, and how many people can be found who are informed on the topic or on even one aspect of it? The availability of books, articles, photographs, films, and recordings is important in selecting a mini-course topic and setting up a timetable. In the case of Joan of Arc, the amount of material is truly astonishing. New publications appear with surprising frequency: two important new studies in English came out in the summer of 1981. This writer's personal collection of photographs, books, articles, and other *réalia*, gathered over the years, is extensive. Other people bring in fascinating and unexpected items: statuettes, postcards and photographs. French and American posters from World War I, sheet music of patriotic songs from the same period, cartoon strips, and labels from Joan of Arc baked beans! A very useful find is the "Jackdaw" collection (London: Jackdaw Publications, Ltd., available in the United States from Grossman Publishers, Inc.,), a packet that includes copies of historical documents in Old French. Students can see and handle a letter from Joan to the people of Reims, a sheet from the verbatim record of the trial, the confession, and other bits and pieces from the Middle Ages. And don't forget the treasures in stained glass and sculpture to be found in churches around the country. A visitor to Mil-

waukee, for example, can discover the exquisite restored fourteenth-century Joan of Arc chapel on the campus of Marquette University.

The course should be an adventure for both student and instructor, widening horizons and raising questions for which there are no answers.

German Heritage in America

Mini-courses on a single individual, a political event, a geographical site, or the like in a foreign culture, provide a host of potential opportunities for pulling many disciplines into one focal point. Can the same be said for a topic that spans more than three centuries and includes millions of unknown immigrants with various citizenships, socio-economic status, faiths, and political motivations? Recent experience at the University of North Dakota shows that even such a vague topic as "heritage" also offers an opportunity for a foreign language teacher to bridge disciplines.

The past decade has seen increasing interest in personal origins, leading to a surge in ethnic pride. This interest has resulted in concern for historic preservation; preparation of family genealogies; activities in preparation for, during, and after the Bicentennial celebrations of 1976; the establishment of new historical or ethnic societies and their sponsorship of annual conventions, heritage days, or a *fest* of some sort. All these reflect the diversity of American life and cool, if not upset, the so-called melting pot.

Among the broadest of these movements has been that associated with America's largest nonanglophone immigrant element—those people whose mother tongue was or is German. German-Americans, especially since the Bicentennial and stimulated in part by contributions to it from West Germany and Austria, have, as some characterize it, "been coming out of the woodwork."

In 1971, descendants of Germans from Russia who settled in North Dakota formed a state historical society, and the writer became a member, mainly because there was no other public German organization in the region. Starting in 1976, publications on the links between Germany and America, with West German support, began arriving in the mail, and two German-language weeklies published in Manitoba, Canada, began to feature German Americana. This proliferation of activity led in 1979 to the designing of a mini-course on our German heritage. The project was a risk because we lacked experience in inter-

disciplinary teaching and had a very limited background and preparation in the subject.

The class, entitled "German Heritage in America," has become, however, a successful example of a mini-course outside traditional teaching fields. It reaches not only students majoring or minoring in German, or those fulfilling a minimal language requirement, but it also appeals to a heterogeneous student body whose primary interests often encompass little cultural content.

Materials for the course have been a problem. Much has been printed on the subject but is no longer available. Many items are limited to a very narrow aspect of German life, and others lack objectivity. How then does one manage if one is not a historian, sociologist, anthropologist, or specialist in religion, political science, ethnicity, American studies, linguistic geography, or interaction among immigrant groups? First of all, start by talking with others to find out if they would be interested in talking with students about an aspect of the course with which they are familiar and comfortable. Begin to collect materials and do some reading. At the first class meeting, be honest with the students. Make it clear that the course is an experiment and that you are not an expert in the field. Not a single student has dropped our course because the instructor was not an authority on the subject, or because students could not adapt to an unconventional class.

The concept of the course is clarified at the outset. A definition of the course title restricts its scope to German-speaking immigrants to North America. It does not deal directly with that portion of our heritage that includes, for example, Bach, Herbart, Luther, Dürer, or Kant. The term "German" includes all German-speaking immigrants, their origin, time and place of arrival and settlement, their numbers and relation to similar groups, their impact on American life, their diversity, and the contributions of a number of prominent individuals.

At the first session, students receive a handout that summarizes the characteristics, contributions, and achievements of America's German element. This is reviewed in detail during the second meeting and provides a framework for the entire course.

All students are required to read one book: La Vern Rippley's *The German-Americans* (Boston: Twayne, 1976), and class sessions attempt to coincide with the reading assignments. The book itself is not discussed at length during the course. Two quizzes—the first at the end of the fourth class, the second in the eighth and final class—cover the read-

ings and in-class presentations. Since students have no opportunity to learn their instructor's personal bias or emphases, they are asked to submit three quiz questions the week before each quiz. Every attempt is made to use at least one of each student's questions. As needed, the instructor fills in any large gaps in content with additional questions and eliminates any questions missed by more than half the group.

Students must prepare an oral or written report on a topic of individual interest which must be approved in advance but may take a variety of forms. Topics have included such things as a specific historical event or person, the Turners and physical education, reports on sects such as the Hutterites, German contributions to wheat farming, a talk on Milwaukee singing societies, family histories, a review of U.S. postage stamps commemorating German-Americans, and the Kindergarten movement. Others have included interviews with GI brides and a retired nun sent from Germany in the 1920s, the meaning of hex signs, an essay on Aunt Frieda's Christmas feast, an analysis of Grandpa's dialect compared to standard modern German, resource lists from local public libraries, land and forest management, and even negative reports on what could not be found, including the beer drinker who tried to establish that his girl friend's father was a lost close relative of August Busch, but had not been able to get to St. Louis.

Visual presentations and talks by visitors enhance class sessions. Since the textbook has no illustrations, artifacts such as a facsimile of the first printing of the Declaration of Independence (in German) are passed around, and collections of pictures are placed on a reserve shelf in the library. The films, "Americans from Germany" and "Carl Schurz" are shown, as are slide sets on German immigrant painters, Germans in Texas, and Germans from Russia.

As in the previously described mini-course, the content and sequence of class meetings depend on the availability of resources. In this case, human resources outnumber materials in print. At the University of North Dakota, a colleague in theater arts is interested in and talks about the German-language theater in America. A professor of European history contrasts the cultural homogeneity of the Norwegians (the other major immigrant group in the area) with the diversity of the Germans on the frontier and as later citizens. The emeritus director of athletics tells of his youth in New Ulm, Minnesota, and of German influences on American schools. An art historian expands upon the slides on the painters and the contributions of German schools of art. An officer of

the Germans from Russia Heritage Society describes his introduction to English in the first grade of a one-room schoolhouse and talks of the recent rapid growth of the society. A Roman Catholic priest with a master's degree in sociology speaks on ethnicity, folklore, and settlement geography, and shows an excellent slide documentary on early prairie architecture. Another colleague in history vividly portrays Gottlieb Bauer, a typical homesteader in the Dakota Territory. We attempt to tie all this together with the readings, a song or two, some linguistic bonds, and personal experiences of the instructor as a first-generation German from Prussia.

This mini-course has tapped and appealed to a cross section of students who have not enrolled in any other course to which they had a blood relationship. A majority have family ties to German-speaking immigrants, and at times German can be used in class for emphasis. Those without German roots add different perspectives and seasoning to the interaction. A fair number of the former have also found the course a complement to their required coursework in German. Some of the latter have turned up the next semester in Beginning German sections. And it has clearly been a learning experience of high value to the instructor-facilitator-coordinator.

Because of the initial success of this course, we prepared a proposal in October 1981 for a possible sequel. If support is granted, the new mini-course will be on the Germans from Russia, narrower in scope than its predecessor but no less cross-disciplinary in nature. It is planned as an evening class so as to include potential enrollment by persons off-campus. More significantly, perhaps, it comes in response to interest shown by and encouragement from students, colleagues, and townspeople.

Conclusion

Mini-courses, especially those that make use of the resources of several disciplines, can be valuable to both teachers and students. The two outlined above have broadened the horizons of our own students beyond the mere classroom study of a foreign language and literature. And in bringing to our department students who might not otherwise have been exposed to multicultural subjects, these courses have been of benefit to us all.

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9
University and Secondary School Articulation:

Four Steps for Creating A Resource Network

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The goal of this paper is to give a model for developing articulation. The time for giving advice about articulation is past: it is time for people from universities and colleges to work together on a plan for better communication. We, the authors, have called our model for articulation a network because the term implies support and communication among members. It implies sharing resources and ideas and giving each other recognition for accomplishments.

Those of us in foreign language education, at the college and high-school level, have been talking about articulation for quite a few years. We know that our attempts at articulation in the 1960s and 70s were not too successful and now we are looking for better ideas.[1] We are all suffering from fears of decreasing enrollments, confusion about each others' policies and programs, lack of confidence in what we are doing, and little communication with our colleagues.[2] In fact, we tend to blame each other for many of our problems and forget to think about our common goals. Bosworth, Nollendorfs, and Marshall discuss the distrust between teachers in high schools and those in colleges. They stress that this distrust must be overcome before dialogue can be achieved.[3] The irony is that we are in the field of communication, but our communication remains impersonal; we espouse cross-cultural understanding, but we do not often interact as individuals. Since our discipline values communication and understanding among peoples, does it not follow that those same values should be reflected in our professional life?

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John Webb advises that the time is here for teachers to begin talking together in earnest.[4] Gerard Ervin suggests that those of us in college teaching climb down from the Ivory Tower and make an effort to come into contact with secondary teachers. In addition, he suggests that those of us in secondary schools make ourselves known to nearby colleges. In his articles he advises college and high-school teachers regarding articulation with each other.[5] Likewise, Bosworth, Nollendorfs, and Marshall give explicit suggestions to high-school and college teachers.[6] One method of acting upon such advice and suggestions is to create a resource network.

If we foreign language teachers bring ourselves out of our isolation, we will experience personal and professional growth.[7] It seems apparent that better communication, access to more information, increased training, and recognition of achievement can only lead to better programs and greater self-esteem and respect for the individuals involved. These benefits will, in turn, be passed on to our students. If high-school teachers, for example, have more information on college requirements and placement policies, they will be better able to counsel their students. As a result, the transition from high-school to college language courses will be smoother for those students. This smooth transition may determine whether students continue with foreign language study. If a college remains in contact with area high-school students, the students will perceive it as enthusiastic and responsive, thereby increasing the chances of their enrolling at that particular institution. Increasing enrollments will make program development and expansion more feasible and may be one answer to the problem of job security. Articulation is therefore an "indispensable tool to help maintain *all levels* of foreign language instruction."[8] It is for that reason that Webb calls articulation the "dialogue for the future."[9]

This paper is based on the premise that people representing high schools and colleges, working together, can generate more vital and comprehensive articulation. The authors hope that their work will serve as a model for creating such a "dialogue for the future."

Step 1—Discussion

In the summer of 1981, the authors, one a high-school teacher and the other a college professor, expressed their needs for and interest in

forming a mechanism for better articulation between secondary and university foreign language programs. Just as Ervin suggested that colleges should "examine their own resources and their commitment to devoting these resources to outreach programs," the authors' first step became an examination of their personal resources and commitment.[10] Because of the usual constraints of time, energy, and money, they selected projects that could be completed by the two of them. Greater involvement and activity were anticipated for a later stage in the development of a network. From the beginning the network was viewed as an evolving process.

The authors began to meet on a regular basis. All the categories mentioned in Ervin's article were part of the interests expressed by the authors, especially by the high-school teacher. In his survey of Ohio foreign language teachers, Ervin found that the kind of assistance asked of the university was: teaching materials, teaching techniques, high school-college articulation, information on cultural events, foreign language promotional/motivational help, guest speakers, advanced courses for teachers, and language days/fairs at colleges.[11] Furthermore, the university professor became convinced that the need to respond to secondary-school concerns was basic for the continuity of the university programs, its enrollment, and its image. In addition, one of the most apparent needs was immediately being satisfied—professionals who had felt isolated were communicating and supporting one another.

After extended discussion, the following goals for a network were established:

1. To provide additional educational experiences for foreign language students in:
   a. the target language;
   b. the study of the culture(s) of the target language;
   c. career planning;
   d. cadet teaching.
2. To ease the transition from high school to university.
3. To suggest areas for improvement of both the secondary and university curricula.
4. To increase interest in the study of foreign languages.
5. To increase communication between secondary teachers and university professors as professional colleagues.

6. To improve the morale of teachers who may feel a lack of support in their field.
7. To provide opportunities for professional growth.

Step 2—Planning

It was believed that implementation of short-term, easily planned activities would provide momentum for more ambitious projects at a later time. During the summer, school calendars and teaching assignments were compared, brainstorming of possible projects designed to meet the established goals was conducted, and, from this, a plan for the school year activities emerged. At that point, the plan was submitted to the building principal and to the department head for approval.

Step 3—Implementation

The following is a description of the activities conducted.

A. **Correspondence.** It was decided that standard form letters between the university and the secondary school were the most efficient way to communicate initially with others in the region. The letters were designed to share information that would serve to increase communication between teachers, to increase the morale of other foreign language educators, and to help ease the transition from high school to college for their students.[12]

The college professor prepared a letter presenting information on the language requirement, on the courses offered at the beginning level, and on the placement test. In addition, special programs available at the university were described and high-school teachers were invited to visit beginning language classes or to call for more information. The university representative also prepared a letter to be sent to high-school teachers and principals informing them about students who had done well on the placement test. This letter was a means of recognizing secondary schools whose language programs adequately prepared their students.[13] (The letters are in Appendix A.)

The high-school teacher prepared two letters to be sent to colleges. The first letter asked for information about an indi-

vidual's placement. The second letter was a short questionnaire about college policies regarding credit for high-school work, placement tests, and graduation requirements. (Appendix B contains these letters for anyone who may wish to use them.) Additional plans were made by both teachers to seek funding, to compile a mailing list, and to conduct the actual mailing.

B. **University students as guest instructors.** From the beginning, the participants wished to provide additional educational experiences for their students. They decided to ask university students to act as guest instructors. This would provide a cadet teaching experience to university students interested in high-school teaching. The high-school students would benefit from contact with a young person, knowledgeable about the language and possibly the foreign cultures, with whom they could identify.

This experience was seen as meaningful only if criteria were established to make it instructional for both the speaker and his or her audience. Great care was taken to choose topics that were a pertinent part of the curriculum and a worthwhile endeavor for the college student. For example, such topics might be: Corsica, Napoleon, Mont-Saint-Michel, French table manners, bicycle racing, Toussaint Louverture, African writers of French expression, and *Québecois*.

The following guidelines for presentation and evaluation were established. They are addressed to the guest instructor.

1. Be aware of the level of your audience. Consult with the teacher of the class you are visiting prior to your presentation and familiarize yourself with the text the class is using.
2. Prepare and make copies in advance of the vocabulary and any complicated structures of idioms you may use.
3. Use a variety of teaching techniques and audiovisual materials.
4. Warn students that they will be evaluated on your speech and that they may wish to take notes. Prepare a short quiz on your presentation. This could be a listening comprehension exercise that would be answered as you speak, or a more elaborate evaluation to be administered by the classroom teacher the following day.
5. You will be evaluated, too. Your college professor will evaluate you on the following criteria: appropriate written materials, appropriate level of vocabulary, ease of your language usage, organization and interest of your presentation.

C. **College visitation day.** Inviting high-school students to the college campus has been seen as an excellent way to improve a university's image and to initiate high-school students to a college classroom.[14] Some universities have field days which include university presentations and/or high-school talent shows.[15] Paul Wood and Leslie Badanes, for example, describe their Foreign Language Day which emphasizes student participation in cultural exhibits, interpretive readings, language productions, audiovisual presentations, and essays.[16] Kathleen Boykin has expanded this concept to include the summer "live in," a week of culture-related activities.[17]

The authors planned their field day to focus on career education for the students. For that reason, the third- and fourth-year students were invited to campus. College representatives spoke on the following topics: 1) general college admission and graduation requirements; 2) the policies, procedures, and programs of the foreign language department; and 3) the application of foreign languages to careers. In small groups, the high-school students visited a foreign language class in session, the language laboratory, the library, and the student union. Student hosts were used to make the exchange of information more informal and appealing.

The schedule was approximately as follows:

8:00 Board the bus from high school.
8:45 Arrive at the University of Cincinnati and be introduced to the student hosts.
9:00 Attend general information session on the department of foreign languages and on admission policies.
10:00 Visit assigned classes (Color-coded name tags indicate groups.).
11:00 Visit to language laboratory, then tour campus.
12:00 Lunch at the student union.
1:00 Visit to library, then listen to speech on careers in foreign languages.
2:00 Board bus to return to high school.

The visitation day was a major project for the authors. The university professor was responsible for making all prior arrangements with her colleagues and with university staff. The high-school teacher had to receive approval from the principal, who

needed justification for the expenditure of time and money. For that reason, preliminary discussion included a rationale, the above-mentioned agenda, and the expected outcomes. The authors look forward to working with other schools to make career education day an annual event.

D. **Examination of programs**. From the outset, the authors were greatly interested in discussing secondary and university programs. The secondary teacher was concerned about the adequate preparation of her students as they entered the university program. This is a complex problem because of the different textbooks and approaches used. Recently, surveys have been conducted to find out what colleges expect from entering students and what skills they expect to be stressed in high school. These same surveys asked high schools to provide information to colleges regarding the secondary-school methods, objectives, and program sequence.[18]

The authors considered a general survey too ambitious. Instead, they decided to compare and contrast their own courses of study and examinations. This initial discussion increased their understanding about the various levels of study and expected student performance. Furthermore, suggestions for program improvement and possibilities for professional growth emerged.

Step 4—Expansion of the network

In the second year the authors plan to involve more faculty. They will recruit among their colleagues as well as continue the activities conducted in the first year. Other professors and secondary-school teachers will be invited to conduct campus visits, provide for guest instructors, and examine programs together. The authors regard a network as a resource designed to support its members. In other words, a network has no formal organization that imposes obligations of membership. Individuals initiate contact with each other out of their own needs and interests. By entering voluntarily into a dialogue, the fears, confusion, and distrust often felt by foreign language teachers can be alleviated. At the same time, this dialogue has the potential to increase mutual understanding and appreciation which may result in vital and comprehensive articulation, beneficial to teachers and students alike.

The authors hope that their four steps for articulation will aid teachers who are convinced of the need for increased communication and interaction between colleges and secondary schools. If many foreign language teachers develop models for articulation, the result will be a profession that is strong and well prepared for the future.

Appendix A
Letters from Colleges to High Schools

Letter No. 1.

Dear (high-school teacher):

The French section at the University of Cincinnati is hoping to improve its communication with area high schools. We know that many of your students come to the University of Cincinnati, and we want to give you some information that may help you counsel your students.

Language Requirement

Students entering into the McMicken College of Arts and Sciences will have a language requirement of 15 or 18 quarter credit hours, depending on the course sequence they choose. Their choice will depend on their interests, needs, and skills. We suggest that students talk with an advisor before choosing a sequence. The Department of Romance Languages offers the following for completion of the requirements:

French 101

Individualized Elementary Language Course. Self-paced. 1-15 credits per quarter. Emphases: Speaking, listening, reading, writing, grammar, culture. Requires a lot of self-discipline. Admission by permission of instructor. Inquire Room 714, Old Chemistry Building. Successful completion of the sequence fulfills A and S language requirement.

French 104-5-6

Elementary Language Course. Intensive. Five credits per quarter. Emphases: Speaking, listening, reading, writing, grammar, culture. Successful completion of the sequence fulfills A and S language requirement.

French 111-12-13

Elementary Conversational Course.

French 211-12-13

Intermediate Conversational Course. Emphases: Speaking, listening, grammar, culture. Three credits per quarter. Successful completion of the two-year sequence fulfills A and S language requirement.

French 114-15-16
Elementary Reading Course.

French 214-15-16
Intermediate Reading Course. Emphases: Reading, writing, grammar, culture. Three credits per quarter. Successful completion of the two-year sequence fulfills A and S language requirement.*

Placement Test

During summer orientation, students who have taken two or more years of high-school foreign language within the past seven years will take a placement test to determine their entry level in their language studies. Under the present plan, students will not receive credit for courses out of which they test. The placement test has been composed by the Department, and tests listening, reading, vocabulary, and grammar. The first part of the examination requires the student to choose a picture correspondir.g to a taped description. In the second section, students answer multiple-choice questions based on a series of taped dialogues. The third section tests vocabulary. Students choose synonyms from a multiple-choice format. The fourth part is a test of grammar through multiple-choice items. Knowledge of all the tenses (including the *passé simple*) and all the pronouns is evaluated. The last section checks reading comprehension ability. Students read short paragraphs and answer multiple-choice questions about the paragraphs. The entire examination lasts 55 minutes and is given in the Language Laboratory in 728 Old Chemistry.

The University of Cincinnati also recognizes the Advanced Placement Program.

Special Programs

If students are interested in majoring in French, please inform them of the various programs offered at the University of Cincinnati. They may major in literature and language or in French Studies. The French Studies Degree allows them to combine related social science and humanities courses with French classes. Students may also major in French with the International Business Option. This means that they receive a certificate in Business and may work two quarters a year in the Co-op Program. The University has a Spring Study Program in France. Anyone wishing more information may contact Dr. John Winter by calling the Department.

If you are interested in observing classes, or if you need more information, please call me at the Department number, 475-6726.

I am looking forward to making your acquaintance.

Sincerely yours,

*These course descriptions were written by Jane Black Goepper and Marty Knorre.

Letter No. 2

Dear (principal or high-school teacher):

It is our pleasure to inform you that your former student, _____ (name), has received a score of _____ which places him/her into _____ (course). In addition, he/she was waived from _____ credits of the foreign language requirement

We congratulate you on the effectiveness of your high-school program. We hope to improve communication between area high schools and the University and extend an invitation to you or to your students to telephone or visit with us on campus if you seek more information.

Sincerely,

Appendix B

Letters from High Schools to Colleges

Letter No. 1

Dear (college supervisor of basic courses):

It is my understanding that _____ (name of student) has enrolled at your university and may have taken your foreign language placement test and/or received credit and/or had the foreign language requirement waived.

Would you be so kind as to fill out and return the enclosed postcard? Please note that individual scores are not requested.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Report on placement of _____ (name of student) at _____ (university).

1. Received _____ credit hours toward graduation.
2. Had _____ credit hours waived.
3. Has been placed in _____ (course).

Letter No. 2

Dear (college supervisor of basic courses):

In order to serve the needs of my students better, would you please answer the questions below regarding your policies and procedures?

Please return this sheet in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope.

Any brochures that describe your foreign language program would be very welcome and prominently displayed in my classroom.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

1. By what method do you grant college credit for work done in high school?
   _____ do not grant credit
   _____ only waive requirement
   _____ CEEB achievement scores (minimum acceptable score per level _____)
   _____ CEEB advanced placement scores (minimum acceptable score per level _____)
   _____ high-school transcript showing successful completion
   _____ placement testing
   _____ other (please explain)
2. Please describe your placement test and performance expectations used to place students in your various courses.
3. Which colleges require a foreign language for graduation, and how many credits must be earned?
   _____ none
   _____ A and S _____ credits
   _____ Business _____ credits
   _____ Engineering _____ credits
   _____ Education _____ credits
   _____ Other (please specify) _____

Notes

1. See the following articles for reviews of articulation in the 1960s and 70s: Gerard L. Ervin, "Market Research and Foreign Language Outreach: Report of a Survey," *Modern Language Journal* 65 (1981), pp. 174-80; Lewis A. Bosworth, Valters Nollendorfs, and Gene Marshall, "Between the Promised Land and the Woozles: Working the Frontier of Articulation," *New Frontiers in Foreign Language Education*, ed. Maurice W. Conner (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1980), pp. 1-21.
2. See the following sections for discussion of these problems: Gerard L. Ervin, "Market Research," p. 174; John Webb, "Articulation–A Dialogue for the Future," *Foreign Language Annals* 12 (1979), pp. 466-67; David Kaplan, "The Case of the Conference: The Dialogue Remains a Monologue," *Modern Language Journal* 50 (1966), p. 207.

3. Bosworth, Nollendorfs, and Marshall, pp. 4-6.
4. Webb, pp. 467-68.
5. Gerard L. Ervin, "Secondary School Outreach Activities: Climbing Down from the Ivory Tower," *Modern Language Journal* 60 (1976), pp. 448-51; Gerard L. Ervin, "Don't Hesitate–Articulate!" *Foreign Language Annals* 13 (1980), pp. 307-08.
6. Bosworth, Nollendorfs, and Marshall, pp. 8-16.
7. For a discussion of the isolationism of foreign language teachers, see Bosworth, Nollendorfs, and Marshall, p. 4.
8. Bosworth, Nollendorfs, and Marshall, p. 3.
9. Webb, p. 465.
10. Ervin, "Market Research," p. 175.
11. Ervin, "Market Research," p. 177.
12. Bosworth, Nollendorfs, and Marshall, p. 15, describe a booklet from the University of Wisconsin-Madison that gives information on the skills needed in college.
13. Bosworth, Nollendorfs, and Marshall, pp. 14-15, include an example of the University of Wisconsin New Freshman Profile which informs teachers of how their former students are doing in college.
14. See e.g., Guessler Normand, "Toward Better Articulation between High School and College Foreign Language Teachers," *ADFL Bulletin* 11 (March 1980), pp. 42-44; Leon I. Twarog, "Beyond Survival: The Role of Foreign Language Programs in the High Schools and the Two-year Colleges," *ADFL Bulletin* 8 (March 1977), pp. 10-14.
15. Keith O. Anderson, "The Foreign Language Field Day: A Blueprint for Motivation and Interaction," *ADFL Bulletin* 9 (March 1978), pp. 47-48.
16. Paul Wood and Leslie Badanes, "Student Motivation: Try a Foreign Language Day!" *Foreign Language Annals* 11 (1978), pp. 61-63.
17. Kathleen G. Boykin, "Strategies for Visibility and Recruitment for College and University Language Departments," *Personalizing Foreign Language Instruction: Learning Styles and Teaching Options*, ed. Renate Schulz (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1977), pp. 142-48.
18. For results of surveys, see Webb, p. 466; Anthony F. Bettramo, "Results of the MALT Survey on Articulation," Montana Association of Language Teachers, *MALT Bulletin* 23 (1978), pp. 11-23 (ERIC ED 152087).

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10 "Winding Down" the Year Positively, Painlessly, and Pleasurably

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While it is common for teacher trainers and methodologists to discuss how to open a class (e.g., Nelson Brooks' "Establishing the Ground Rules,"[1] Kenneth Chastain's "The First Day of Class,"[2] and Albrecht Holschuch's *Der erste Tag zählt*[3]), almost no one talks about how to conclude one. Yet, an unsatisfactory course ending, like the "wrong" ending to a movie or a novel, can have an enormous influence on an individual's seeking out future experiences of the same "genre." The quality of a course ending just might cause the foreign language student, over a summer, to rethink any plans he or she had for continuing in the sequence.

The "Winding Down" Teacher Types

Teachers, traditionally, end a semester or a school year in one of five ways. While the mythical teachers represented here are extremes, almost every teacher will find one he or she resembles more closely than he or she might prefer.

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Lawrence Lowkey proceeds through the textbook as he has throughout the year. His objective is to cover as much material as possible, at a normal pace, before time runs out. He is the only teacher of French in his school and therefore does not have to worry about what students do or do not know. His testing and evaluation in the last six or nine weeks of the year, as in all the other grading periods, involve homework, quizzes, and a chapter or unit test. Mr. Lowkey's students will respond in a business-as-usual way, although they may be more easily distracted than usual by the birds and bees of spring.

Dora Doubletime, as the buds begin to open and people begin their suntans, begins to teach two, three, and even four units in the time it took to teach one earlier in the year. Mrs. Doubletime is a teacher in a junior high school and wants her students to be "up with" the students they will be joining in the high-school classes next fall. Her testing and evaluation procedures in the final grading period include homework, quizzes, and a final exam made up of "bits and pieces" of the units covered. Each year, Mrs. Doubletime's students become tense and anxious in spring, frustrated by their inability to make all the quantum leaps this kind of teaching requires. Mrs. D. is always hurt when a student suggests that she is unreasonable in her expectations.

Ella Exhaustive annually uses the last month of the final grading period as an extensive "cleanup campaign," systematically covering every facet of the language learned thus far for a "whiz bang" final exam. Mrs. Exhaustive's students may go to another teacher or return to her; her stress is on review. During the final grading period, testing and evaluation involve the completion of worksheets, quizzes, and at least a two-period final test. Mrs. E.'s students are edgy, scared, and resentful, for the test is virtually their grade—not only for the grading period but for the semester.

Thomas Testalot uses the final grading period for several weeks of tests—speaking tests, grammar tests, vocabulary tests, reading tests, writing tests, culture tests, and listening tests. Every two or three days, Mr. T.'s students are confronted with another part of the battery, for he feels that these tests give him the best possible grade profile for each student. Some of Mr. Testalot's students almost buckle under the sustained pressure of test after test, but some become apathetic, unable to "come up" for more than one or two of the tests.

Cindy Concentration focuses all her efforts in the final grading period on cultural and/or communicative activities and learning—to cover aspects she has not integrated into the instruction during the year. Like Mr. Lowkey, she is the only teacher in her school and will teach those going on herself. Her testing and evaluation in this time span revolve around grades for participation and speaking, oral tests and quizzes on culture. In the spring, Ms. C.'s students may be bored by the sameness of the instruction and/or frustrated by their inability to perform due to their lack of experience.

While each of these imaginary stereotypes has the best of intentions, not one of them has really thought through what he or she is about and what attitudes he or she may be creating.

The End Is as Important as the Beginning

Students should leave a course with some real sense of achievement and progress, but this is extremely difficult if they have spent the last weeks of the course reviewing forms and grammar, taking and checking over tests, and catching up on missing or make-up work. There are some key questions teachers need to ask themselves—and answer honestly—as the calendar moves toward Easter:

1. Are most of the students in this course continuing in the language, or is this a terminal course for most of them?
2. When is a comprehensive review the most meaningful—in the spring when students are ceasing study for several weeks or in the fall when they are resuming their studies?
3. Does a massive review at the end of a course really emphasize learning, or grades?
4. Are the end-of-the-course learning activities, in and of themselves, as interesting, positive, and "low key" as those at the beginning?
5. Do the end-of-the-course learning activities develop the students' pride in the progress they have made, or their frustration because there is still so much they do not know?

Any semester or year-course should have as finite an ending as its beginning.

There are some simple do's and don't's teachers can follow in "winding down" the year in efforts to minimize student feelings of frustration, failure, or hostility—or even sheer inadequacy.

DO "couple" skill-getting and skill-using in the review process. Apply the vocabulary and grammar reviews in communicative activities as a part of the work.

DON'T begin the review too early in the final grading period. Allow no more than a week and a half for the review and the test.

DO keep the emphasis on the progress the students have made.

DO evaluate oral performance and listening comprehension.

DO plan some culminating and fun activities for the last few days of the semester.

DON'T use the semester exam or the final grade as a "club" over the students' heads.

DON'T focus wholly on pencil-and-paper exercises.

DON'T let the year peter out while you count books and grade papers, and the students either autograph yearbooks or raise hell.

Fun activities are not necessarily, by the way, games; they may simply be activities that tickle the fancy because they are different, activities that have a high success factor, or activities that do not involve strictly observed "rights" and "wrongs."

There should be two kinds of global learning activities in the last part of a course, even if there are none throughout. To that extent, our mythical Ms. Concentration was not all that far off base; her problems stemmed from the amount of the dosage, not the intent. The two kinds of global learnings are:

1. communicative activities that call upon students to synthesize and integrate the various linguistic phenomena they have been studying—activities that, as Patricia B. Westphal has said, "move beyond learning plural definite articles to using language as a communication tool;"[4] and
2. cultural activities that are concerned with the development of cultural insights and some knowledge of the world in which this target language is used.

Culture and communication are, after all, the two chief goals we utilize in promoting foreign language study and in recruiting students for our programs.

What kinds of activities will serve these two global ends as the year is gently "winding down"?

More Meaningful Review Activities

Since almost nothing will deter the dyed-in-the-wool reviewer from ending his or her course in massive summaries, arguing the need for

reinforcement all the while, the better course may be to try to aid teachers in reorienting and restructuring their reviews to be more productive, for *the only meaningful end-of-the-course reviews are those that are designed to help students to recombine and integrate the learnings they have dealt with as "pieces" throughout the term.*

Rather than reviewing grammar in the order in which it was presented or through the original textbook drills and exercises, one could, following up on a suggestion of Rebecca M. Valette's, use—and exploit—pictures of cars to review "colors, adjective position, comparisons, irregular verbs (*Je préfère la voiture de Susan.*), pronouns (*Je la préfère.*), or verb tenses (*J'ai vu une voiture blanche.*)." Valette goes on to suggest using the pictures of places, in our context to review: "*être (Mary est à Québec.), aller (Pete va à Québec.),* or verb tenses (*Nous allons visiter Québec. Sally a visité Québec. Bill n'est pas allé à Québec cet été.*)."[5]

Another kind of integrative activity, involving the listening comprehension and speaking skills, can follow any reviews of the parts of the body, numbers, singular and plural nouns, and articles of clothing. In this paired-learning activity, an expansion of one first proposed by Renate Schulz at a 1976 ACTFL Preconference Workshop, "Emphasizing Communication Skills in Foreign Language Study," each member of the pair receives a drawing that contains the instructions: "Describe this monster so that your partner can draw it. Do not let him or her see it." (See Figure 1.)

This oral exercise, entitled "Draw a Monster: An 'Affirmative Action' Activity" because of the nonsexist approach to the monsters, is accompanied by these general directions: "Draw a picture of the monster your partner describes. If you don't understand, ask your partner to repeat, or ask questions. When you finish your drawing, describe your monster so that your partner can draw it." And the proof of this "pudding" is in the communicative drawing!

One can also use maps for a variety of integrative review exercises. The maps of the Spanish-speaking world that appear in such texts as *Usted y yo*[6] and *Churros y chocolate*[7] can be used:

1. to review phoneme-grapheme relationships through the study of Spanish-speaking countries and their capitals;
2. to practice adjectives utilizing nationalities; and

3. to drill the prepositions and verbs associated with motion and location.

The maps of the world in *Son et Sens*[8] can also be used for this kind of review. In the process of such drills, the students reinforce some vital knowledge of the world and/or of the target language's utility in the world.

Even with less specific maps like those of the French-speaking world in *French for Mastery*[9] or wall maps that teachers have in their rooms, teachers can drill such things as disjunctive pronouns, as Robert C. Lafayette proposed in the 1981 Central States Preconference Workshop, "Culture Comes into Its Own: 'Globalizing' Foreign Languages." Lafayette suggested the following exercise possibilities.

Il est belge. *Moi*, je suis français.

Mais tous les deux, nous parlons français.

Il est algérien. *Moi*, je suis marocain.

Mais tous les deux, nous parlons français.

The exercise has expanded learning capabilities as one moves about the world.

Il est allemand. *Moi*, je suis français.

Mais *moi*, j'habite l'Alsace et comme lui je parle allemand.

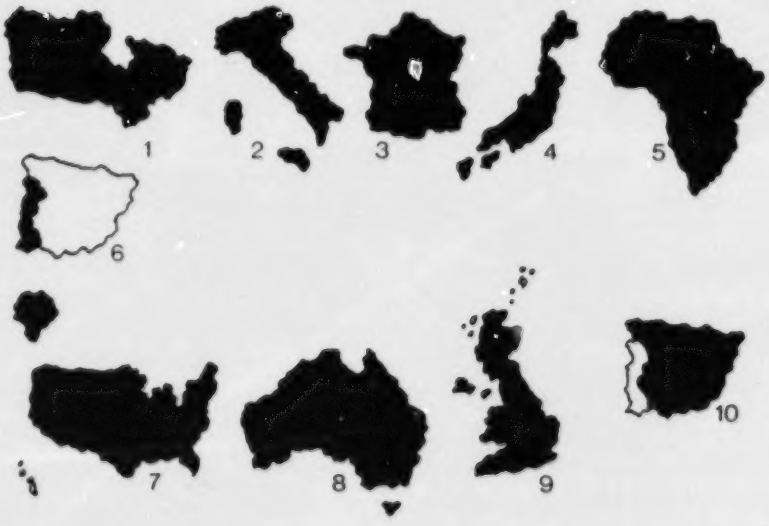
Il est canadien. *Moi*, je suis américain.

Il habite le Québec. *Moi*, j'habite le Maine et tous les deux, nous parlons français.

This kind of exercise has the advantage of strengthening or reinforcing the students' knowledge of the world as they are reviewing linguistic phenomena.

The same types of map drills can be performed with the maps that appear in the second-level German text *Die Welt der Jugend*.[10] Here the focus might well be on the Federal Republic's nine neighbors, for West Germany is located in the center of these nine societies, roughly half of whom are NATO nations, half Warsaw Pact or Eastern Bloc nations.

Anthony Mollica[11] suggests a map "puzzle" in the foreign language class in which students are given the puzzle to look at.



They are then told in the target language: "Mr. and Mrs. Dupont are going on a trip around the world. Identify the countries to which they will be going." The student then completes the sentence "Mr. and Mrs. Dupont are going to _____ ", naming the ten countries in order. Mollica suggests some other kinds of drills in conjunction with this map puzzle, drills in which the student must comprehend the meaning of the sentence in order to complete it.

A. 1. The _____ live in Canada.
   2. The _____ live in Spain.
   3. The _____ live in Italy.

B. 1. They speak _____ in Spain.
   2. They speak _____ in Italy.
   3. They speak _____ and _____ in Canada.

Students may just find pleasure in these kinds of reviews, for they are more challenging than some of our more somber (and curious) textbook exercises.

Neil Simon argued, on the Celebrity Tapes produced by the Joint National Committee for Foreign Languages a few years ago, that foreign language study gives one's mind a chance to travel. One real benefit of map-based linguistic reviews is that they lend themselves readily to follow-up communicative activities in which students plan tour itineraries or role-play travel experiences.

Those teachers who are not ready to go this route in their spring or end-of-course reviews should consider seriously using this approach to the comprehensive reviews usually offered in the fall in the second year and above. It can liven up what all too easily dissolves into routine and sameness.

Reviewing a lot of the linguistic content with maps—verbs of location and motion, in any and all tenses, the prepositions of location and motion, disjunctive pronouns, and/or adjectives through the nationalities—obviously gives the whole of the reviewing process a cultural cast. In that same way, vocabulary reviews can be made to be culture-based. The teacher can do any or all of the following; he or she can:

1. provide visual cultural referents from authentic sources in the target culture(s);
2. place the word in meaningful sentence contexts, making certain that any cultural connotations are made clear; and/or
3. group vocabulary items in culture-related clusters.

It might be well, for the sake of clarity, to define some culture-related clusters. Some examples are:

foods according to the meals at which they are eaten or the way in which they are ordered in a café or restaurant;

modes of transportation organized into ways of getting around in town, ways of getting from town to town, and ways of getting from country to country;

professions with their places of work and their products; and/or months of the year with seasons, weather, holidays, and sports.

When we review vocabulary in this way, students' minds are given a chance to travel, as per Neil Simon's contention, and the groundwork is easily laid for application or communicative activities thereafter.

It should be clear that while the teacher may be "winding down" the year, he or she can simultaneously be "winding up" the students' interest in the target peoples. Culture is not a bad focal point in the spring.

Topical Mini-reading for Latin et al.

Although Latin teachers may feel a little left out at this point because they do not deal with the development of conversational skills as modern language teachers do, there is a variety of things they—and their modern foreign language colleagues—can nonetheless use in a positive approach to integrative learning while "winding down." They can:

1. drill the verbs and prepositions of location and motion in moving around the ancient city of Rome in a systematic tour of monuments; and/or
2. collect topical sets of *sententiae*, mottoes, or proverbs on such topics as food, bread, parts of the body, travel, friendship, the family, animals, and so on; and/or
3. rapidly review some of the readings presented in the textbook, arranging them topically for the review.

Spanish teachers, for example, might want to review the *Notas Hispánicas* sections in *Usted y yo*,[12] this time focusing on only the idea content, not the linguistic content, in a "pulling together" of the students' knowledge of the Spanish-speaking *world*.

German students using such series as *Unsere Freunde*,[13] might also benefit from some contrastive listing and categorizing activities in which they reorganize and synthesize what is known about their six friends in the text. They could then elect, "campaigning" in the process, their favorite of the friends, at the very least completing such open-ended sentences as "My best German friend is _____ because _____."

The final days of any "winding down" activities should be more centered on idea content—what the students have learned about the people—than on linguistic content—what the students have learned about the language.

"Wind Down" Culturally

As the students are reorganizing, recombining, and integrating their course-of-year learnings, one excellent focus—the something to talk about so mandatory for communicative activities—is culture. Problem-posing or problem-solving activities can be fun both as individual writing assignments or small-group oral work. Renée S. Disick proposed an excellent activity, posing the questions needed to stimulate student responses.

> You and your friends are part of the crowd enjoying the Tour de France (a bullfight, a Fasching celebration, and so on). What are some of the things you see? What are your reactions? What will you do after the presentation is over? Do you all agree or do you have different ideas? Must you call your parents? Do you have to be home by a certain time?[14]

Building on some suggestions made by Robert C. Lafayette to an Indiana University/Purdue University–Indianapolis workshop in the summer of 1980, one might also try one or more of the following.

> Imagine that you are planning a trip from Paris/Madrid/Mexico City/Hamburg/Rome to another place in the country. List at least three aspects of the trip that would be identical to those experienced traveling in the United States and at least three that would not occur in the U.S. Imagine that you are at a restaurant in Germany/France/Russia/Spain/Mexico/Italy. Describe at least three aspects of the meal you would have there that are similar to comparable occasions in this country, three aspects that are different.

Advanced students can contrast similarities and differences between two or more of the societies that speak the target language.

Spanish teachers might, as part of the "winding down," use the students' reading skills as a basis for collecting the information necessary to a contrastive exercise. Consider these two descriptive narratives prepared by native speakers for Indiana University's first-year Spanish courses which are coordinated and directed by Dorothy Rissel.

Una estudiante chilena

Generalmente, a las 7.30 de la mañana desayunamos. Tomamos jugo, una taza de café y tostadas o galletas. Cuando no tenemos tiempo sólo tomamos café. A las 8.00 tomamos el bus o el metro para la universidad. A las 8.30 vamos a nuestra primera clase. Estamos en clase hasta las 10. A las 10.30 tenemos otra clase hasta las 12. Los horarios son flexibles. Todo depende de los cursos que tomamos. Al mediodía vamos a la cafetería de la universidad y comemos algo. Cuando tenemos otra clase a las 12.30, comemos algo liviano, un sandwich y un refresco o algo así. Cuando no tenemos clase hasta más tarde, entonces volvemos a casa y almorzamos una ensalada, un plato fuerte y el postre. Cuando hace frío también tomamos sopa. Por la tarde vamos a clase nuevamente, a veces hasta las 7 o 7.30, otras veces hasta las 9 de la noche. Si tenemos unos minutos, a las 5 tomamos un té con galletas o dulces. Después que terminan las clases, tomamos el bus o el metro de vuelta a la ciudad.

Las universidades están en las ciudades, pero algunas están cerca y otras más o menos lejos del centro. Cenamos como a las 8.30 de la noche. Si tenemos clase hasta más tarde, debemos comer como a las nueve y media. También hay clase los sábados por la mañana en algunas universidades chilenas. A veces los estudiantes tienen una clase desde las ocho y media hasta las diez y otra desde las diez y media hasta las doce. Entonces, durante el recreo, vamos a la biblioteca y leemos, o vamos a la cafetería a charlar con los amigos. Los fines de semana vamos a bailar a fiestas o a discotecas, y al cine.

por Katiça Obilinovic Díaz

Una estudiante española

A las 8.00, más o memos, desayunamos. Nunca tomamos huevos; generalmente tomamos una taza de café y pan o galletas. Muchos domingos hay un desayuno especial: chocolate, con galletas y pasteles, pero durante la semana muchos estudiantes sólo toman una taza de café. A las 8.30 o 8.45 vamos a la universidad. No tomamos el bus ni el metro porque la universidad está muy cerca del centro. Andamos siempre. Tampoco hay muchas bicicletas en las ciudades. A las 9.00 o a las 10.00 vamos a la

primera clase. Cada clase dura una hora. Generalmente cada estudiante tiene cuatro o cinco clases al día: por la mañana o por la tarde. Comemos siempre a las 2.00 o a las 2.30. Cuando hace frío tomamos sopa y un plato fuerte—carne o pescado—y ensalada y postre. El postre es siempre fruta, excepto los domingos. Los domingos son días especiales y comemos pasteles de postre. Después de las clases de la tarde comemos algo ligero: tortilla, por exemplo, y fruta otra vez. Y, por supuesto, café para estudiar por la noche—algunos estudiantes toman té para estudiar o Coca-cola. Cuando tenemos clase por la mañana, estudiamos en casa o en la biblioteca por la tarde; y cuando tenemos clase por la tarde, estudiamos en casa o en la biblioteca por la mañana. Pero siempre tenemos que estudiar por la noche también. Nunca hay clase en la universidad los sábados. Y la biblioteca está cerrada los sábados por la tarde y los domingos. Tenemos que estudiar en casa el fin de semana. Pero nosotros no estudiamos siempre. Muy a menudo visitamos a nuestros amigos y charlamos, tomamos café o té (nunca tomamos cerveza cuando visitamos a amigos) y cantamos y tocamos la guitarra.

por Rosa Pérez-Parapar

The points for questions are obvious: how do their breakfasts compare, what are the similarities and differences in their class schedules, how do they travel to class, and so on.

Teachers can make their own sets of contrastive reading by utilizing all those examination copies of textbooks they collect, excerpting a paragraph here and a lengthier passage there. Be sure to cite your sources, however.

In setting up contrastive cultural activities calling upon the student's global linguistic skills, teachers must be careful to put more emphasis on similarities than on differences. While more research is needed, Harry Grover Tuttle[15] and his colleagues have shown that teaching similarities leads to a more positive attitude toward contact with native speakers; stressing differences, on the other hand, tends to build up a student desire for avoidance.

Getting Feedback Necessary for the Fall "Wind Up"

One of the components of the "winding down" phase, in addition to communicative and cultural activities, building the students' global linguistic capabilities, and extending the students' knowledge of the globe they inhabit, ought to be some kind of student evaluation. Student evaluations can contribute a great deal to the strengthening and improvement of the course in subsequent years.

A one-page student evaluation form, developed by Jan Hofts, a French teacher at Indianapolis' John Marshall High School, provides a good starting point. On Jan's form, students are asked to check "yes," "sometimes," or "no" for each of the following:

I. TEACHER
   A. Was available for help.
   B. Was pleasant, friendly.
   C. Was organized.
   D. Used a variety of activities.
   E. Wasted too much classtime.
   F. Was too easy in discipline.

II. GRADES AND WORK
   A. Too much homework was assigned.
   B. Tests were too long.
   C. Grades were fair.
   D. Objectives for tests were helpful and clear.
   E. Homework and tests were returned promptly.

III. CLASS ATMOSPHERE
   A. Was relaxed.
   B. Was interesting.
   C. Classroom was attractive.

IV. YOU
   A. I worked hard.
   B. I looked forward to coming to this class every day.
   C. I learned more than I thought I would.
   D. I will remember learning French as a good experience.

V. COMMENTS

The evaluation might be stronger if we were to make some additions. Under "Grades and Work," one might want to add:

   F. Enough time was devoted to speaking and speaking activities.
   G. We worked enough with culture to keep the course interesting.
   H. There were too many grammar drills.
   I. Too much time was devoted to reading.

Beyond those insertions, one might want to ask one question in

advance of the "Comments" section: "What did you expect to learn about the French/Germans/Italians/Romans/Russians/Spanish that never came up?"

Some teachers are fearful or defensive when the use of student evaluations is proposed. Most students, when they err in evaluating, err on the side of generosity. In those few instances in which the student evaluations have a vindictive cast, especially when an entire class responds negatively, they may simply be making repayment in kind. A serious and honest use of student evaluations, at the end of grading periods as well as at the end of a course, however, can be a clear signal to students that their teacher is sensitive to their feelings about the language learning experience and wants to meet their goals as well as those already set.

Conclusion

"Winding down" the year need not result in harried or frustrated students, fatigued students and teachers, or bored, restless teachers and students. With some "low key" care, the last segment of a course or year can be a positive and pleasurable demonstration of "the last for which the first was made."

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A Global Approach to Foreign Language Education, ed. Conner (1981)
New Frontiers in Foreign Language Education, ed. Conner (1980)
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